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THEME OF THIS ISSUE

Special Services in the
Reading Program

PUBLISHED BY THE

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION



The Reading Teacher

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Vol. 14, No. 4

March, 1961

Contents

	Page
THINK IT NO MORE — R.G.S.....	225
THE ROLE OF AUXILIARY SERVICES IN THE READING PROGRAM — Helen M. Robinson..	226
READING CLINICS — Albert J. Harris.....	232
LIBRARIES BOLSTER THE READING PROGRAM — Helen Huus	236
VISION AND READING — Lois B. Bing.....	241
THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF HEARING, SPEECH AND READING — Joseph M. Wepman.....	245
RESULTS OF TEACHING A SYSTEM OF PHONICS — Arthur I. Gates.....	248
WHO SAID "GO TO THE ATTIC FOR CHILDREN'S BOOKS"? — Nancy Larrick.....	253
SOME DIFFICULTIES WHICH INDIAN CHILDREN ENCOUNTER WITH IDIOMS IN READING — Maurine Dunn Yandell and Miles V. Zintz..	256
SCHOOLS AND CLINICS TO VISIT — Martha Casey and Elizabeth Ruck.....	260
WHAT RESEARCH SAYS TO THE READING TEACHER — Agatha Townsend.....	267
WHAT OTHER MAGAZINES SAY ABOUT READING — Muriel Potter Langman.....	271
INTERESTING BOOKS FOR THE READING TEACH- ER — Harry T. Hahn.....	279
THE CLIP SHEET — Mary Elisabeth Coleman.	287
PRESIDENT'S REPORT — Mary C. Austin.....	291
SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF IRA (Pro- gram)	293

THE READING TEACHER is published five times a year, September, November, January, March and May, by the International Reading Association (IRA). Headquarters: 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago 37, Illinois. Mailed to all members of the IRA in good standing according to its constitution and by-laws. Available to non-members at a subscription of \$3.50 per year. Single copies, \$1.25 each; 5-19 copies, \$1.00 each; 20 or more copies, 75¢ each. Copyright 1961 by the International Reading Association, Inc. Second class mail privileges authorized at Chicago, Ill., with an additional entry at New York, N. Y. Business correspondence should be sent to the headquarters of the IRA. Manuscripts and correspondence on editorial matters should be sent to the Editor at the Reading-Study Center, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware. Books for review should be sent to Dr. Harry Hahn, Book Review Editor, 1025 N. Telegraph Ave., Pontiac, Michigan.

Think It No More

Alice in Wonderland is replete with delightful episodes. In the "Mock Turtle's Story" occurs the comparing of notes about school between Alice, Gryphon, and Mock Turtle. When referring to the regular course he took, Mock Turtle speaks about "Uglification" as one of the different branches of arithmetic. Alice asks, "What is it?" and Gryphon answers by contrasting uglifying and beautifying. Then he adds, "If you don't know what uglify is, you are a simpleton."

It could very well be that many children in our schools could find the word "Uglification" a useful term for describing some of their regular courses—such as reading, perhaps. "Once," said Mock Turtle, "I was a real Turtle." It could very well be that many of our retarded readers could look at us—as Mock Turtle looked at Alice, with large eyes full of tears—and say, "Once I was accepted as a real boy."

Of course, when we mean to set or prescribe the bounds for a person or thing, we use such words as limit, circumscribe, and confine. And limit can imply the predetermination of a point in time, in capacity, in production or the like, or a bound or bounds not predetermined but inherent. To what degree, then, are children who are retarded in reading bound by predetermined limits, or by inherent limits? Can such children turn to us and charge us with being simpletons if we don't realize the degree to

which we set upon them courses that limit, bind, and uglify?

In the scene in Hamlet where occurs the celebrated speech of Polonius giving advice to his son, there occur also the lines by Laertes to his sister which begin with "Think it no more." Then he goes on to say that unvalued persons are not circumscribed in choice as is Hamlet. Not so with retarded readers;—they are valued persons and they, too, are circumscribed in choice. Day after day pupils retarded in reading are required to go to school and experience limited success.

This issue of THE READING TEACHER, on the role of auxiliary services in the reading program, should go a long way toward assuring those who teach that we are examining our traditions wisely and encouraging needed changes. Significant in these articles is the evidence that the trend is toward prevention of learning difficulties. If pupils are to be circumscribed in their learning, it should be with the best education.

"We had the best of education," said Mock Turtle.

Alice replied that she, too, had been to a day-school, and added, "You needn't be so proud as all that."

And then Mock Turtle queried Alice, and in questioning declared the limits of a good education when he asked "With extras?" If her school didn't provide the extras then it wasn't a "really good school."—

R. G. S.

The Role of Auxiliary Services In the Reading Program

by HELEN M. ROBINSON

SPECIAL SERVICES in the reading program may be classified into two broad categories. The first includes the work of reading specialists of different types with varying responsibilities; and the second is composed of the services of specialists in related professions. The purpose of this paper is to explore the latter category, in view of the fact that the former has been considered by the writer in a previous article (2). However, the reading specialists (consultant, remedial teacher, etc.) are often the key persons in coordinating the different services with the reading program.

In this paper the services of allied specialists will be called auxiliary services. In most schools these services are limited and, as a result, are available only to selected children. Therefore, auxiliary services must be supplied by parents or other agencies.

Purposes of Auxiliary Services

Auxiliary services are designed to enhance all learning, and particularly learning to read. At the present time the services of specialists in these areas are more often used to help pupils who are retarded in reading. It is not unusual for a retarded reader to be referred to a school psychologist, speech correctionist, school nurse, or to a psychiatrist. The services are here performed for individual pupils. The service is usually

diagnostic, but correction of the difficulty is essential if the pupil is to be helped to make progress with the guidance of a remedial teacher.

Another function of auxiliary services is evolving at varying rates in different schools. This function is prevention of learning difficulties. Prevention of reading deficiency is ideal if it is possible. To the extent that research, case study, and personal insight permit specialists to identify factors that inhibit reading progress, effective preventive procedures can be developed, evaluated, and applied. Today experimentation by reading specialists and auxiliary specialists is taking many new and unconventional forms. However, evaluation is too often subjective, and before adequate research has been completed the experimental procedure is adopted as a partial panacea.

In view of the fact that auxiliary personnel tend to have training and competence in fields allied to the teaching of reading, it follows that they often find it difficult to evaluate reading progress unless they are part of a team. Ideally, a team of auxiliary specialists will work with the reading specialist in serving retarded readers or in planning programs for preventing reading failure. This type of cooperative plan is more likely to insure better service to children and youth than an individual approach, particularly in experimental stages.

In most schools, however, individual pupils with difficulties are referred for auxiliary services. It is urgent that either written or oral reports accompany each referral, and that the auxiliary personnel reciprocate with adequate reports. Both the diagnosis and the plan for therapy should be described in terms that the reading specialist can understand. Very often a conference is needed to plan the instructional program in reading so that it will not interfere with therapy by auxiliary personnel.

Types of Auxiliary Services

The special services may be classified several ways. In this paper, however, they will be considered in relation to the physical, psychological, and social aspects of their special contributions, although some serve in more than one of the three categories.

Physical services. The school nurse is usually responsible for all aspects of health, several of which appear to be related to reading progress. She often uses special devices for screening pupils who may need referral to experts for diagnostic and corrective purposes. In some schools a physician is also available, at least part time, to advise concerning screening procedures and to make decisions about questionable referrals. In such a school preventive plans are more likely to be available.

Visual screening is often done by the school nurse, perhaps assisted by laymen under her supervision. Too few schools have the services of vision specialists for this purpose. An

exception is represented by the Orinda study in California (1), where it was shown that at approximately the same cost per pupil professional visual examiners markedly increased the accuracy of referrals for visual care.

One of the problems faced by school personnel is the lack of uniform views held by ophthalmologists and optometrists. Consequently, it is highly desirable to include representatives of both groups serving on an advisory committee to establish procedures for visual screening in schools, especially of pupils who are retarded in reading. Sweeting reports excellent results in New Haven, Connecticut (3), where co-operative efforts of the two professional groups resulted in improved service. The visual screening procedure developed there resulted in the referral of about 20 per cent of the pupils, in contrast to an approximately 10 per cent referral based on the Snellen test alone. Several studies show that retarded readers tend to pass the Snellen test even though they really need visual care. Therefore, improved visual screening which is endorsed by both groups of professional refractionists is particularly helpful.

When pupils fail visual screening tests, the final diagnostic examination and corrective procedures remain at the discretion of the parents. In order to coordinate the efforts of different refractionists who examine children and prescribe visual care for them, it is very useful to develop a standard "report form," which is sent out by,

and returned to, the person designated by the school to make such referrals. Returned forms should then be made available to teachers and reading specialists.

Screening for loss of hearing is usually done by the school nurse with the use of an audiometer. Referral to a specialist known as an otolaryngologist is made when persistent hearing losses are found. A report from this specialist is also needed by the classroom teacher and reading specialist. If the hearing loss is only temporary, or if it can be corrected fairly easily, the teacher may need to review some aspects of the work missed by the pupil. On the other hand, in cases where no correction is made, the teacher needs to make adjustments in the instructional program to provide maximal opportunity for success.

Although the relationship of endocrine disturbances to all aspects of learning, and especially to reading success, is controversial, this factor should not be overlooked. In individual cases hypothyroidism has been found to contribute to learning difficulty. Pupils who give evidence of endocrine imbalance should be referred to an endocrinologist. However, considerable care should be taken in making wholesale referrals in this as in other areas.

Of recent interest is the possibility that minimal brain damage may affect the learning of a considerable number of children. Research in this area is limited, and many neurologists can identify the difficulties only if there are obvious physical con-

commitants. Furthermore, experimentation in corrective procedures, as well as in remedial instruction, is only in the embryonic stage. In all probability, however, this is an area in which new devices for selecting pupils for referral will be forthcoming.

The auxiliary services related primarily to physical factors are highly significant to the reading program in individual cases. At present, however, the effect of preventive procedures is still controversial. Both research and experimental programs of prevention are needed in this general area.

Psychological services. The school psychologist is often used largely as a psychometrist whose main function is to estimate capacity to learn. This is a significant service to the teacher and reading specialist, especially for pupils who are already retarded in reading or for those who come from underprivileged homes, different cultures, or who have little command of the English language.

However, the well-trained psychologist should be of much greater assistance to the reading teacher than providing adequate measures of intellectual ability. He should be able to assess the extent of emotional inhibition in learning to read. If the emotional difficulty appears to be the result of reading failure, the reading teacher can often be successful in alleviating both problems, under the guidance provided by the psychologist. If the emotional problem seems to be more basic, the psychologist may be able to carry forward the

necessary therapy. However, severely disturbed children are usually in need of psychiatric care. The psychologist would make the referral and usually serve in a liaison position, offering assistance to the classroom teacher or the reading teacher.

In addition to offering therapy to pupils with emotional disturbances, the psychologist and psychiatrist can aid in preventing personal problems. Their assistance in helping teachers provide a climate that promotes maximal learning helps to prevent an undetermined amount of retardation in reading.

The speech therapist should have an excellent psychological background, although he must be familiar with the physical problems basic to incorrect speech. However, according to many reports, the proportion of speech defects due to physical abnormalities is relatively small, and for this reason the speech specialist has been included in the category of psychological services.

Speech therapy helps children recognize and produce the language which they will learn to read. Since oral language is basic to learning printed symbols, speech correction offers strong support for the reading program.

Many investigators concerned with the relationship between speech problems and reading difficulty have sought another factor which underlies both. One such factor has been emotional problems. Another which is currently under investigation at several centers is auditory discrimination. Wepman (5) has concluded

that auditory discrimination matures at different ages, in some cases as late as eight years. Furthermore, he has found that pupils with inadequate auditory discrimination usually exhibit unique speech problems which are not amenable to treatment until the auditory discrimination is adequately developed. On the other hand, he hypothesizes that retarded readers without speech problems may be taught to discriminate among similar sounds in words. Investigations of this type are extremely important as they may illuminate the difficulties experienced by certain pupils in learning phonics at early ages. Furthermore, such insight might point to the use of other sensory avenues for beginning reading among selected pupils.

Speech therapy is an essential auxiliary service in correcting reading difficulties. It also offers promise for preventing reading failure among selected pupils.

All of the psychological services have proved to be useful in diagnosis and in remedial instruction. However, a great deal of research and experimentation is needed to develop an adequate plan to prevent reading failure in all aspects of psychological services.

Social services. The visiting teacher or school social service worker is usually most concerned with families of children who present school problems. In serving retarded readers especially, the visiting teacher can appraise the socio-economic status of the home and determine the kinds of expectations and motivations pro-

vided. Some parents are over-ambitious while others have little academic expectation for their children.

Another type of service which must be performed is to follow up on referrals for physical and psychological difficulties. For example, a pupil whose parents have been notified of the need for a professional visual examination may fail to take the recommended steps. The visiting teacher may learn that the parents cannot afford such professional care and call to their attention a service that is free or relatively inexpensive.

In instances where referral for psychiatric or child guidance services have been made, the visiting teacher may need considerable time to help parents accept and secure this help. Occasionally, medical service is not compatible with parental beliefs, and the remedial or classroom teacher must be alerted to this fact so that compensations in teaching can be made.

The visiting teacher should also be informed of the reading difficulty exhibited by each child so that it can be explained to parents. Some parents, however, do not feel satisfied without direct conferences with the classroom or remedial teacher. Whenever such conferences are scheduled, the visiting teacher should be included.

So far, few planned programs of prevention of reading difficulty have been attempted in this area. Undoubtedly the paucity of trained personnel and the great demand on the time of the few who are available account for this fact.

Organization of Auxiliary Services

Throughout this paper reference has been made to referral of pupils to specialists who supply auxiliary services. The referral is based on the assumption that the remedial reading teacher or reading consultant is already dealing with the pupil who appears to exhibit certain problems. However, in some school systems, the reverse is true. For example, the school psychologist may be the first to examine a pupil. If the psychological appraisal reveals evidence of reading difficulty, then referral to a special reading center is made. If this plan is followed, the school psychologist must be fully aware of the characteristics of the retarded reader, and referral to the reading specialist must be easily done.

In order to facilitate communication, some schools organize special services under one administrator. In other instances the special services are brought together in a child guidance center. In either plan the administrator must have sufficiently broad experience and training to enable him to give proper emphasis to each type of special service. Otherwise, one type of service may be over-emphasized, while another is given little opportunity to develop properly.

Few schools have sufficiently large budgets to provide auxiliary personnel for research or to experiment with preventive programs. Hence, it seems likely that within the foreseeable future schools will continue to seek more effective devices for identifying individuals who need special care, will assist the parents in providing it.

and will then correct the resultant reading difficulty.

Concluding Statement

Special services to the reading program include several within the school and many others supplied by parents. Varied services are needed because, as Vernon (4) points out, our present methods of clinical diagnosis have failed to isolate any factors which appear only among retarded readers. The reading specialist in the school must be responsible for requesting different types of special services as they are needed. He must also be sure that he is informed of the steps taken, the difficulties corrected, and he must maintain proper communication with each of the auxiliary services. The coordinated efforts are far more effective than permitting each specialist to proceed without full knowledge of the efforts of others. The existing special services should be organized administratively to make most effective use of each in order to correct existing retardation

in reading and to learn how to prevent many such failures in the future.

(Mrs. Robinson organized and directed — from 1944-1958 — the Reading Clinic at the University of Chicago, where she pioneered in the team approach to studying poor readers. At present she is responsible for the graduate program in reading at the University. She is President of the National Conference on Research in English and is a member of the Board of Directors of IRA.)

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5. Wepman, Joseph M. "Auditory Discrimination, Speech and Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, 60 (Mar., 1960), 325-33.

ERRATA. Dr. L. C. Breen, author of "Vocabulary Development by Teaching Prefixes, Suffixes and Root Derivatives" in the November 1960 issue of this journal, wishes to make the following corrections: Page 94, Nos. 1 and 16 should read *facere* and *capere*, respectively. Page 95, Col. 2 should read "The *f* became an *h* and the infinitive became *hacer* instead of *facere*." Page 96, No. 14 should read *logos*. On Page 97 the quotation is from W. J. Osburn.

Reading Clinics

by ALBERT J. HARRIS

A READING CLINIC is an organized group of people whose primary function or purpose is helping individuals become better readers. Because reading clinics vary greatly in their specific objectives, their organization, and in their modes of functioning, it is impossible to give a generalized description of how reading clinics work. It is, rather, necessary to describe a number of different kinds of reading clinics, and to indicate the points of differences as well as the elements there may be in common.

The most numerous reading clinics are those sponsored by colleges and universities. A listing published in 1960* gives information about more than 120 college and university reading clinics. Of these, twenty-seven provided services only to the students of the institution; the rest provided some kinds of service to other clients.

The objectives and purposes of typical university clinics often include the following: (1) training of graduate students in the techniques of reading diagnosis and remedial reading instruction, (2) conducting research on various problems in reading, (3) providing developmental reading programs or courses in which competent undergraduate readers can raise their reading skills to higher levels, (4) providing remedial read-

ing programs for undergraduate students whose reading ability is poor, (5) providing remedial reading services for elementary and secondary school pupils, (6) providing developmental or "speed reading" courses for adults, (7) providing consultant services to schools or school systems.

Because a major responsibility of universities which provide doctoral programs in reading (or in a specialization such as educational psychology, in which reading may be emphasized) is to train graduate students, both the remedial program and the research program in reading are likely to be closely integrated with this training function. In such institutions the person in charge may be a senior professor. The remedial teaching is done largely by graduate students taking courses in diagnosis and remediation, or by advanced graduate students working full or part time as members of the clinic staff. The clinic's case load is likely to be governed by the training needs, and the number of clients accepted is largely determined by the number of graduate students for whom supervised experience is necessary. Among the best known of the university clinics are those located at the University of Chicago, Boston University, Columbia University, New York University, Syracuse University, Temple University, University of Florida, and University of Minnesota.

**Directory of Reading Clinics*, EDL Research and Information Bulletin No. 4, Huntington, N. Y.: Educational Developmental Laboratories, 1960.

Reading clinics which are located in undergraduate colleges usually give top priority to service for their own students, with both developmental and remedial programs. In addition, many of them offer remedial reading services to the community. Usually this work is done by members of the clinic's paid professional staff, although sometimes undergraduates taking courses in the teaching of reading are used as tutors for children.

Clinics located in colleges and universities usually have related clinical services so that special examinations can be arranged as needed. Thus in a large university, a reading clinic may be able to refer its clients to other units within the university, such as a psychological clinic, a speech clinic, or the ophthalmological, pediatric, neurological and psychiatric clinics of the university hospital. Specialized resources within the community, such as medical clinics, child guidance clinics and social service agencies, are also used by many college and university clinics as needed. Special services of these types are more likely to be available in large cities than in smaller communities.

College and university reading clinics are usually expected to be at least partially self-supporting. They usually charge low or moderate fees, but not enough to cover the full cost of the services provided. A few do not charge any fees, and some are completely self-supporting. They are vitally important, not primarily for the number of clients helped, although this service is a useful one,

but rather in training reading specialists for many different kinds of positions.

Second in number are the reading clinics organized as independent units. Some of these are sponsored by one or more civic or charitable organizations and obtain only part of their income, or none at all, from fees. Examples of these are the Northside Center for Child Development, in New York City, and the Junior League Reading Center in Chattanooga, Tennessee. Some are independent nonprofit organizations with a board of directors to whom the professional staff is responsible. Most of the independent clinics, however, are private enterprises operated on a profit-making basis. They vary greatly in size, services offered, and competence and professional outlook of staff. Some of them are directed by people with good professional training and experience, and provide service of high quality. A few, unfortunately, utilize high pressure advertising methods, and provide service of mediocre quality.

Reading clinics not associated with schools or charitable organizations are, in most states, not subject to any kind of governmental supervision other than that over private business ventures in general. Before utilizing the services of such a clinic, therefore, it is desirable to make careful inquiries concerning the professional background of the staff and the organization's repute among local educators.

Least numerous, but increasing in number, are reading clinics which

are organized within public school systems. The pioneer city in developing school reading clinics was St. Louis. Other large cities which have school reading clinics are Philadelphia and New York. New York City started with one clinic unit in 1955, and has been adding one or two units a year, so that in September, 1960 there were nine units in operation. Each unit has a staff of three or four "reading counselors," a full-time psychologist, a full-time psychiatric social worker, a part-time psychiatrist, and a clerk; all units are supervised by an administrator who in turn is responsible to an associate superintendent of schools. A description of this program has been published in this journal.*

The reading clinic as an organized group of professional people working together in a cooperative fashion has possibilities of action which are beyond the capabilities of the remedial teacher or reading specialist working in a schoolroom setting. Psychological examinations, social work with parents, and psychiatric evaluations and recommendations are available as needed. The clinic remedial teacher encountering difficulty with a child can consult with colleagues and with professionals trained in other disciplines. A clinic can conduct more thorough diagnostic

studies than most remedial teachers, and can sometimes succeed with difficult cases that are not responsive to the usual kinds of remedial help.

One should not overlook remedial reading clinics which are part of larger clinical organizations, and clinics which carry on remedial reading programs as part of a total program of services for children. In New York City, for example, two general hospitals have small remedial reading clinics, related to their pediatric and psychiatric clinics. In America there are several hundred psycho-educational clinics, child guidance clinics, and mental hygiene clinics which find children with reading disabilities among their clients. Many of these clinics diagnose and treat reading problems. Often in such a clinic the educational, emotional, and social problems of a child receive simultaneous help, so that the child may be getting remedial teaching from one staff member, psychotherapy from another, and his mother may be seeing a third staff member. This kind of coordinated effort is particularly helpful with cases in which the emotional and social problems seem to be blocking progress in learning.

In many reading clinics there are facilities for both individual tutoring and small group work. Relatively few clinics provide individual help only; some see clients only in small groups. Groups generally vary in size from two to five or six children. In a few so-called clinics, teaching is done with groups of ten or more; these are really schools with small classes

* Stella S. Cohn, "The Special Reading Services of the New York City Board of Education, Part I—An Overview of the Program," *The Reading Teacher*, Vol. 12, No. 2 (December, 1958), 107-114. Margaretta W. Fite and Margaret M. Mosher, "The Special Reading Services of the New York City Board of Education, Part II—The Clinical Program," *Ibid.*, No. 3 (February, 1959), 181-186.

rather than clinics. When student groups are that large, it is unlikely that either in diagnosis or in instruction there can be the careful consideration of individual problems and needs, and the frequent consultations among staff members, which are characteristic of a properly functioning clinic.

There are, then, many kinds of reading clinics. Many of them are widely known, some are little known, even in their own communities. Collectively they form an excellent resource for the teacher or parent

trying to find help beyond what the school can give. Those which train reading specialists and serve as research centers fulfill a vital role which is unique and indispensable.

(*Dr. Albert J. Harris, Director of the Educational Clinic at Queens College and former Supervisor of the Remedial Reading Service at the City College of New York, was President of IRA in 1958. He is the author of How to Increase Reading Ability and numerous articles on reading.*)

From the Clip Sheet

Libraries

The August 1960 issue of the *California Journal of Elementary Education* is devoted to consideration of the elementary school library. Articles discuss why the library is needed, how it may be started, how it may be used, and bases for evaluating the library. The issue concludes with a bibliography keyed to each topic.

Library Week

National Library Week will be celebrated April 16-22. The observance is sponsored jointly by the National Book Committee, Incorporated, and the American Library Association.

Jot down for future reference the date of the 1962 Library Week, April 8 to 14, 1962.

Libraries Bolster the Reading Program

by HELEN HUUS

THE READING program in school has as its major purposes to teach children how to read, to excite their interest in reading, and to stimulate them to acquire lifelong habits of using books and other printed materials to help them develop into civilized, cultured human beings.

The school's part in this development of lifelong reading is only the beginning. What students and graduates actually do when they are out of school, during their educational careers and following graduation, is perhaps the best test of the school's success. For the skills and habits that are transferred to daily-life activities are those that are well learned, that have meaning, and that are useful to the individual. One good evidence of the transfer of reading habits and skills is apparent in the utilization of various library services.

School Libraries

The basis for library use is laid in the elementary school, whether it maintains classroom collections or has a central library with a trained children's librarian. The school library—and this is true of junior high and high school libraries also—serves three purposes. (1) It provides an opportunity for students to learn how to use a library, (2) it provides a wide and varied collection of books for study and research to supplement textbooks, and (3) it provides books for extending interests, solving per-

sonal problems, and reading for enjoyment.

Learning to use a library. Books in a collection must be arranged in some order if they are to be located easily by many readers. Regardless of the size of the original collection, some arrangement must be decided upon so that additional books can be absorbed into the original group as these are acquired.

In elementary schools the specific arrangement sometimes poses a problem. Shall the Dewey decimal system be used, or shall books be arranged by topics such as "Mystery," "Biography," or "Wild Animals?" While some schools take the line of least resistance and merely label sections of shelves by topics, it would seem feasible in the long run to classify books according to the Dewey classification from the very beginning, for most secondary school and college libraries use this system. Children soon learn the different categories and the specific shelf location in the libraries they use. Even kindergarten children can go directly to the shelves that contain fairy tales or books about airplanes.

It is the responsibility of the elementary school to teach children how to locate materials they need. This means that pupils will first be taught the shelf locations of the types of stories. Next they learn the large Dewey categories, usually the hundreds that contain their most-wanted

books. By third grade, most pupils are ready to learn how to use the card catalog, for they know the alphabet functionally, not only by rote. Each succeeding year, however, the teacher or librarian needs to check the children's ability to locate books, and training should be provided in new areas or with new tools.

Encyclopedia and dictionary use follow closely, for the same alphabetical skills necessary for using the card catalog are also needed for using reference books that are alphabetically arranged. However, as children learn to use these references, they should also be taught to use the indexes of such encyclopedias as the *Book of Knowledge*, *Our Wonderful World*, and the *Oxford Encyclopedia*.

Children need help in choosing books on their reading levels. Some librarians have met this problem by shelving books by grade level, though books are classified according to Dewey. Other librarians keep the order according to the classification and indicate difficulty by putting different colored bands across the back of the book—white for first grade, blue for second, and so on (3). A child soon learns the right color for him, even though no mention may be made of the difficulty level by the teacher or librarian.

In addition to learning the right source and the right level of difficulty, children need to learn the rules of library courtesy in regard to their own behavior and to the handling of books. Respect for others and respect for property go hand-in-hand, and

too often these intangibles are neglected in favor of functional skills.

Using the library for school assignments. Teachers at all levels are departing from the sole use of a single textbook to the use of multiple materials. While the text may provide the springboard, students then pursue in greater detail the parts that must, for lack of space, be treated only briefly in the text. Here is where additional background reading, student reports on specific details, and current materials from periodicals can be used to advantage.

Few texts, for example, can contain the amount of detail about the westward expansion of the United States that is found in children's books like *The Lewis and Clark Expedition* by the late Richard L. Neuberger (Random); the biography, *Narcissa Whitman: Pioneer of Oregon* by Jeanette Eaton (Harcourt); or *Of Courage Undaunted* by James Daugherty (Viking). Through reading these, children begin to appreciate the treacherous journey, the fear of Indian attack, the importance of pure drinking water, and the courage and perseverance of the pioneers. Without such specifics, children who have followed the Oregon Trail today, riding over paved roads in the latest model from Detroit, may tend to interpret the early 1800's in terms of their own experience.

It is in the library, too, that periodicals are available—the very useful *National Geographic*, *Junior Natural History*, *American Heritage*, *Horizon*, and *Life*, just to mention a few

that are unusually well illustrated.

Library materials provide students with a depth of understanding and penetration into a subject through elaboration of incidents, improved visualization of situations, and identification with historical figures and characters. Students also extend the subjects to larger dimensions than before through acquiring new information, seeing new relationships, and noting avenues for further research.

Using the library for individual purposes. If libraries are to serve individuals throughout life, the habit of going to the library for answers to problems must be established while students are still in school. Teachers and librarians must know the students, know their problems, then steer the student to the right book.

High school libraries provide extensive materials on colleges and careers to help students make educational and vocational choices. Books like Haroun Tazieff's *Caves of Adventure* (Harper), which tells of cave exploration, or Jacques Costeau's *The Silent World* (Harper), which describes underwater exploration, open up new vistas of aspiration for young people of today.

Students who may be having personal problems can be encouraged to read books that treat similar situations. Elementary school children from minority groups can sympathize with Wanda in *The Hundred Dresses* by Eleanor Estes (Harcourt), or with April Bright as she meets discrimination for the first time in *Bright April* by Marguerite De Angeli (Doubleday). Older boys will

sympathize with the hero of *Joe-Pole, New American*, by Florence Hayes (Houghton), as he makes his way in an American high school. Older girls will understand the problems Monica faces in *The House of the Fifers*, by Rebecca Caudill (Longmans), as she grows in maturity and comes to accept, though not too graciously, the idea of her father's remarriage.

Students soon learn that libraries contain the answers to their questions, whether they be the date of the opening of King Tut's tomb, the names of the tribes in Gambia, the famous buildings designed by Le Corbusier, the agricultural products of Ceylon, or a biography of Thomas Wolfe or Vance Packard. And as students meet success in obtaining answers, they continue learning about available resources, and consequently tend to turn to the library as new problems arise.

Other Libraries

Public libraries. School libraries as they are currently operated serve the needs of students only partially, for most of them are restricted to their own students, are open only during school hours, and contain limited collections. Public libraries — local, county, and state — also serve the school population and complement the school library services.

The increasing use of public libraries by students after school hours has caused problems in some libraries (13, 15), but librarians do recognize the limitations of school library service and do provide help just as they do for other age groups.

Public libraries usually stock many more books with a greater range of difficulty level, have back issues of periodicals, and often contain rare books or special editions that school libraries cannot purchase because of the cost.

Some libraries provide language, music, or literature recordings and listening rooms, as well as the "talking books" that are circulated to those who are blind.

Libraries also have the privilege of borrowing from another library through the interlibrary loan arrangement. In this way materials that are in manuscript form, or unpublished, or in a limited edition can be obtained. The Library of Congress maintains a National Union Catalog of books available in the United States and Canada, and smaller union catalogs for a region are found in Denver, Philadelphia, and Seattle.

Public library service is still not available to all. There were 253 of the counties in the United States, including twenty-five million people, without adequate library service in 1959, according to a survey by the Library Services Branch of the U. S. Office of Education. Nevertheless, progress has been made since the passage of the Library Services Act in 1956, and in 1960, fifty-two states and territories of the United States shared the seven and a half million dollars appropriated by Congress to develop county and regional libraries.

College and university libraries. These libraries serve secondary school students by providing technical collections and works in foreign lan-

guages that the ordinary school or public library would not supply. College libraries often contain special collections of books or manuscripts, scholarly journals, government publications, and other printed materials needed by students preparing research papers or for accelerated students who are taking college-level work in high school in order to achieve advanced standing in the college of their choice.

Special libraries. In this category are included libraries sponsored by hospitals and other similar institutions, research laboratories, government and the military, industry and business, and foundations and educational agencies. A quick survey of a professional library journal showed librarians at work in American Viscose, Atlantic Refining, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the National Science Foundation, United Aircraft, Sharpe and Dohme, Socony Mobile Laboratory, United Shoe Machinery Corporation, IBM Research Laboratory, Air University at Maxwell Air Force Base, Bureau of the Budget, Pennsylvania Economy League, Insurance Company of North America, Council of Foreign Relations, Scripps Institute of Oceanography, and Kaiser Aluminum.

Libraries like those mentioned above are but a handful of the many similar ones scattered throughout the country that serve the specific needs of their own organizations. By special arrangements, students with unique problems may often be permitted to use such special libraries, and school librarians and teachers should be

aware of those in their immediate area.

Teacher-Librarian Cooperation

If students are to get the best use from the library services available, it is important that teachers and librarians cooperate to make the way easier for all.

The teacher can help by watching for new books in his field and requesting their purchase, by studying the books available in the library to locate relevant volumes to be put on reserve for an assignment, by working with the librarian in grading books for difficulty and making up graded lists on specialized subjects, by informing the librarian in advance of special assignments that require library work, by being realistic in the type of assignments and in the setting of deadlines, by helping students select books each can read, by sending the librarian class materials that can be used for display purposes, and by changing classroom collections frequently.

The librarian can help by cutting down the red tape and getting books on shelves quickly, by organizing the collection so that books can be easily located, by instructing students in the skills of library use, by allowing students to browse at open shelves, by encouraging them to read noncirculating materials in the library, by serving as a resource person in various classes, by helping select collections to be checked out for classroom use, by locating lists of books for the teacher's use in selecting books for special assignments, by reminding

teachers when it is time to order new books, by calling new books, interesting articles, and newspaper clippings to the attention of teachers, by maintaining a shelf of professional books for teachers and a reserve shelf for students, by setting up attractive book displays that call attention to types of books, books on a topic of interest, or current literature, and by providing the professional atmosphere and study climate within the library so that constructive work can be accomplished.

When teachers and librarians work together in the manner described above, then students who have learned how to read *will* read.

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(Continued on Page 244)

Vision and Reading

by LOIS B. BING

SINCE READING is a visual task, an understanding of vision and the visual abilities a child needs for school achievement are of interest to the reading teacher. We find conflicting reports on the relationship between vision and reading achievement. Most of this seeming conflict is due to the variation in concept of vision employed for the particular study. Vision as we are discussing it here involves the total process which operates when a child reads, not just his eyes.

The Eye and the Camera

It will be helpful to consider the total process of vision in light of the visual abilities we expect children to have for the tasks required of them in school. The classical discussion of vision uses a camera as illustration. This camera analogy may be helpful in some respects, but its use may well be a major stumbling block to an understanding of the total process in operation when a child reads or learns through means of his vision. If the eye is likened to a camera, we must take cognizance of the fact that children have two eyes, so two cameras are involved. Sometimes the two eyes are nearly alike, and then again they can be quite different, one having a clear picture and the other a picture of varying degrees of indistinctness, or even one of a different size. Sometimes both eyes will have a clear picture when the object

of regard is near at hand but will not when it is far away.

When we think of a camera we think in terms of a tripod and a still subject. In the process of vision the tripod is replaced by a mechanism which consists of six muscles outside each eye, making a total of twelve muscles which must function together, to aim each of the two eyes at the object of regard. This eye-aiming mechanism, rather than operating on a stationary base, operates from a base which is usually moving, the head.

We are familiar with the idea that a camera needs to be focused for the distance of the object. In the visual process the focusing mechanism is such that each eye receives the same stimulus to focus. So again, one eye, even when focus is involved, may have a clear image while that of the other is blurred. In some cases one eye responds easily to focus demands while the other does not.

The cameras (eyes) are only the first part of the visual process involved in reading. From the light-sensitive layer at the back of each eye (the retina), light patterns focused on it generate nerve impulses which are transmitted from each eye by way of the optic nerve and visual pathways to the visual area of the brain (cerebral cortex). On the way from the eyes to the cortex the impulses from the nasal side of each eye (inner half) cross over to join the

impulses from the temporal side of the other eye (outer half) so that when they arrive in the cortex, each hemisphere of the brain receives impulses from both eyes. Those from the right side of both eyes travel to the right hemisphere and those from the left side of both eyes travel to the left hemisphere. In the cortex these neural impulses, initiated in each eye separately, must be blended into one picture if the child is to see singly and visual perception is to be initiated. This visual perception, modified by impulses received from other sensory areas, is projected out into space to the object of regard. The complexity of the total process is increased by the interrelatedness between the eye-aiming, eye-focusing, and fusion mechanisms.

When we reflect on the visual abilities we want children to have for achievement in the classroom, we realize we expect them: to see clearly at distance and near . . . to maintain binocular fixation at distance and near . . . to change fixation easily from one place to another . . . to maintain focus at far and near and to change focus easily . . . to have visual memory . . . to perceive general configuration (form), likenesses and differences in form . . . to perceive size and space relationships . . . and to be able to determine color.

The Total Visual Process and Vision Testing

Because the Snellen test is used so widely as a screening procedure, it is important that reading teachers be fully aware of its limitations. Eye defects screened out by it are im-

portant to correct (they interfere with the child's ability to see detail clearly at a distance and in some instances at near points, too), but most of those screened (nearsighted) are not likely to have a problem in seeing detail at reading distance.

The ability to maintain visual concentration for distant and near-by objects and to learn easily through vision is affected by the eye aiming, focusing, and the fusion mechanisms which are functions of the brain. As such, they are considered central nervous system functions. Any disability in these central nervous system functions controlling eye movement, focus, and fusion will in turn affect a child's ability: to develop visual memory . . . to judge size and space relationships . . . to perceive form . . . to note likenesses and differences in form . . . to develop eye-hand coordination. All of these visual abilities are needed for achievement, both in school and out.

These abilities are developed after birth through maturation and learning. The variation from child to child of the degree to which each child develops his visual process is such that according to Gesell, "Every child exhibits a distinctive pattern of development of visual performance. . . . Considering the profound intricacy of the visual complex alone, it is not strange that there should be such an amazing range of individual differences in reading performances both before and after the age of six."^{*}

^{*}Arnold A. Gesell, "Vision and Reading from the Standpoint of Child Development," from *Clinical Studies in Reading No. II*, edited by Helen Robinson (University of Chicago Press, January, 1953) p. 131.

Children lacking them can usually be helped to attain these visual abilities through means of glasses for distance, general, or near use only, and through visual training. Through visual training, such abilities as eye movement control, focus, fusion, visual memory, perceiving likenesses and differences in form, size and space relationships can usually be brought to normal performance.

The complex process of vision must function with ease and efficiency if the child is to learn through vision without interference. When any part of this total process of vision does not operate satisfactorily, there will be some interference with visual performance and school achievement. This total process of vision must be examined to determine whether vision is a factor in non-achievement in reading. Important as it is to have an adequate program of visual screening, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that none of the commercially available batteries of vision screening tests include sufficient tests to appraise the functioning of the *total* process of vision. At best, only a rough estimate is obtained through screening procedures.

There are a number of reasons why teachers will want their study of the individual differences of children to include a careful observation for symptoms of visual difficulty: (1) Many schools do no visual screening at all, or very limited screening. Also, screening at best is a limited appraisal. (2) The dynamics of the classroom situation may add a stress

on the process of vision. (3) Parents ignore referral notices sometimes or delay seeking visual care for their child. (4) There are variations in professional vision services. Some eye specialists make measurements of optical errors (nearsighted, farsighted, astigmatism) and perform various other tests, but fail to investigate the role played by the brain mechanisms controlling fixation, focus, and fusion. (5) Some visual problems cannot be solved or are not readily solved.

Because of all of these factors, teachers will have children in their classrooms who are not achieving as they should because of vision difficulties.

The ABC's of Vision Problems

Children's reactions to vision difficulty vary. They can conveniently be grouped into the A, B, C's of symptoms. The *A's* are for avoidance reactions. The child may avoid the problem of using his eyes together effectively by avoiding the task (daydreaming or getting into trouble), or by blocking out one eye through turning, tilting, or placing his head so close to the object of regard that he uses one eye only. Other *A's* include appearance of the eyes: watering, reddened, or crossed eyes; encrusted eyelids or frequent sties.

The *B's* are for behavior characteristics: body rigidity; thrusting head forward, frowning, squinting when trying to see; tenseness, nervousness, fatigue, restlessness, irritability, excessive rubbing or blinking of the eyes when maintaining visual

concentration; inability to distinguish "man" from "men," "get" from "got," etc.; inability to remember what is read; holding book too close; need to reinforce vision through saying words to themselves, and by using a finger or marker to keep the place.

The C's are for complaints: headache, dizziness, nausea, blurring, or seeing double. All of these characteristics can be observed by the informed teacher. Children displaying one, two, or several of these symptoms persistently whenever visual concentration is required should be urged to have a complete examination of the functioning of the total process of vision. Because of the variation in vision care available, parents must be urged to seek the services of practitioners who not only test for eye problems, but also test the functioning of the rest of the process of vision. Continued study of the retarded reader has shown that

these functional findings have strong relationship to success in reading.

By understanding vision, by knowing the limitations of the vision screening program in use in the school system, by noting symptoms of vision difficulty children display in the classroom, and by referring children obviously in need of vision care to practitioners who appraise the total process of vision in their examinations, reading teachers can help many children who might otherwise find achievement impossible.

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(Continued from Page 240)

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The Interrelationship of Hearing, Speech and Reading

by JOSEPH M. WEPMAN

QUESTION TEN on the Comprehension subtest of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale is "Why are people who are born deaf usually unable to talk?" The relationship between hearing loss and speaking is, according to this test, an expected bit of knowledge in the average adult. The relationship of hearing to reading and of speaking to reading is, however, not so widely known, nor so obvious. To many educators, in fact, the relationships implied are given little credence in the evaluation of the beginning reader. It is to this vital area in child development and education that the present paper directs itself.

The term *hearing* itself is not easily understood and is even now being redefined by specialists in the field of audiology. To quote from one outstanding student in this area from a soon-to-be published manuscript: "In the course of normal development children learn to listen, to understand, to put together meaningful references with the use of verbal language-symbols, and then to talk. Hearing does not consist of a built-in set of reflexes; this is only an alerting response. Rather, hearing is an appropriate response to an effective stimulus; and what is appropriate is largely a matter of the development of the child. This means that an appropriate response to sound, particularly to speech sounds, is a function

of experience, coupled with memory and learning" (1).

The interrelationships among hearing, speech, and reading make up one of the appropriate responses—the phonic system, in which the phonemic and orthographic alphabets are joined into one; in which the child needs to put together the discrete elements of speech (phonemics) with the discrete elements of visual perception (orthographics) and perceive the relationship among them.

The *level of development of the child* is the other key phrase that must be understood in the hearing-speech-reading complex. Research recently completed (3) as well as earlier studies of child development in language (2) point to the breadth of evidence that *hearing* is a developmental process which is rapid in some children and slow in others; that hearing is not unitary but made up of a series of factors, each having its own rate of development although with strong interrelationships in maturation. The importance of these dual considerations in terms of the development of phonic ability in the child cannot be over-stated. The fact that children during their first three years of school (ages six to nine) have differential development of their auditory ability and the fact that different facets of hearing come to maturity at different rates and

thereby limit the ability to learn aurally during these most important years has been given too little attention.

Hearing—the over-all ability to transmit, integrate, and use the auditory signal—is divisible into no less than three separate parts. These are (1) acuity, (2) comprehension, and (3) perception. They are listed in this order since chronologically they develop in this order.

Acuity — the ability to transmit sound waves through the external ear to the nervous system—is the term commonly used to define hearing. When it is deficient the child has difficulty both in comprehending what he hears and in perceptualizing it. The signal doesn't get through. He neither understands accurately nor can he discriminate the discrete units. The specific frequency bands that are affected in any loss of hearing are usually directly correlated with difficulty in discrimination and consequently directly related to any inability to speak with accuracy (one speaks as one hears), as well as being directly related to difficulty with the phonics of reading. This type of hearing loss (acuity) can in many instances be compensated for by amplification, by the use of hearing aids.

Comprehension — the ability to understand and to integrate what has been heard—while directly affected by loss of acuity also has a strong relationship to other intellectualizing factors and is therefore a part of the over-all picture of mental ability and mental retardation. When auditory comprehension is affected, whether

related to acuity or not, the child has difficulty both with speech accuracy and with reading since he cannot integrate what he hears with what he has learned through other senses. Comprehension is less dependent upon the recognition of discrete units of sound than it is upon the Gestalt, the total meaning acquired through the auditory pathway. Children learn to understand speech long before they are able to develop their own language or speech. Defects in auditory comprehension lead to language delays. Unfortunately, children with such defects do not respond to amplification of sounds, but only to lengthy training.

Auditory discrimination and retention, the third aural factor which can be isolated is the very necessary ability which must develop sufficiently for a child to produce accurate speech and accurate phonics for reading. This perceptual ability, which has been demonstrated to have its own rate of development, may continue to mature through the eighth year of life (3). Children in the first three grades of school who show inadequate discrimination of the discrete units of speech sounds usually have poor articulation in speech and equally poor ability to learn to read by phonic approaches. Such children, it has been shown, do develop relatively adequate speech as they mature in the ability to discriminate. It is assumed that they will also develop the ability to understand and to use phonics as their discriminatory ability increases. From this viewpoint the teaching of

reading as well as therapy for the articulatory inaccuracy in speech production should first approach both tasks from other modalities, e.g., visual or kinesthetic. The use of other senses in addition to hearing should assist in eliminating much of the frustration that these children feel, much of the withdrawal from reading and speech that they evidence, when they are asked to perform a task for which they are not yet equipped. If it is thought necessary, the child should be trained in discrimination of auditory patterns. Training in discrimination will often seem to speed the developmental process, or at least prepare the child for better discrimination when he is capable of it.

Hearing, then, in all of its facets, is a developmental process. Children differ in their maturation in each of its parts. By understanding this relationship between hearing, speaking, and reading, and by individualizing instruction to meet the specific needs of the child, the teacher can accomplish more than the teaching of either speech accuracy and reading,

he can offset one of the most perplexing problems some children face.

Education is more than skill training, rather—to paraphrase what a leading teacher said in speaking of the role of the teacher—it is the opportunity to make children more literate, to provide through good oral language training the foundation upon which all of their future learning is based (4).

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Results of Teaching a System of Phonics

by ARTHUR I. GATES

THIS ARTICLE reports the results of a study of the reading abilities of third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade pupils in a community in which the Carden system of phonics has been used for many years.

We shall use the term phonics to mean any procedure or technique of translating parts (letters, digraphs, etc.) of visible words into sounds and using the sounds to work out the recognition and pronunciation of a word. In this sense some form of phonic training has been employed in American schools for more than a century and is still provided in practically all of them. The methods of developing independent skills in word recognition adopted by most investigators of the teaching of reading during the last quarter century take account of the fact that children, from the beginning, can recognize words as easily as they can recognize letters. Starting children right off to read rather than to labor with letters and letter sounds is believed to be more satisfying and to provide more direction and purpose to teaching the use of phonic and other clues to word recognition, usually introduced soon after the beginning of reading.

Another type of phonics program, first introduced into American schools more than a century ago, began with drill in recognizing and variously manipulating parts of words, usually letters and letter

sounds, before words were recognized and read for meaning. In some systems extensive drill on the sounds of isolated letters (singly or in combinations) paralleled meaningful reading of words. In either plan, this type of teaching was based on a formidable program of drill on the sounds of letters and letter combinations organized into some kind of "system" of phonics which was introduced at the beginning of instruction in reading, and usually continued through several elementary school grades.

This general type of phonics has been recently championed by several persons, most conspicuously and confidently by a journalist and a college teacher of English. The Carden system is one of the many methods of this type. It begins with drills in naming and sounding the consonants and naming but not sounding the vowels. Later the long sounds of vowels are introduced, followed by the short vowel sounds. Then the consonant blends and an extensive array of other word parts are taught. In the second grade the system introduces a long list of phonic rules along with drill and other efforts to rationalize a host of letter-sound combinations. In the third grade this type of drill tapers off, but it remains as a heavy program of formal phonics through the eighth grade. This system is a very elaborate one, similar in many respects to the Hay-Wingo

and other plans of the type popular before and during the period of the Model-T Ford.*

Terman and Walcutt† state that the Carden system is "flourishing today in a score or two of schools in Long Island, New Jersey, and New York, producing results . . . that far surpass those of ordinary schools, its teachers so enthusiastic that they declare they would resign rather than use another method. . . ." Miss Carden "insists on personally supervising [the] installation [of her system] and training the teachers in any town that adopts it." These writers appear to rate the Carden system as best or at least one of the best of its kind.

This present study involved an analysis of the following data obtained for the pupils in the third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade classes in each of the four schools in a community near New York City:

(1) The reading grades of each child in the tests of (a) reading speed, (b) reading vocabulary, and (c) reading comprehension comprising the Gates Reading Survey, and total reading score obtained by combining the three tests.

(2) The mental age and intelligence quotient (I.Q.), based on the California Mental Maturity Tests in a majority of cases, and on the S.R.A., the Otis, and other tests in the remainder. The intelligence tests

were given at different times over a period of four years.

(3) The number of school years during which the child had received instruction by the Carden method, which was taught in the kindergarten and throughout the elementary school. The amount received by each child could therefore vary from a maximum of six years to a minimum of zero years, the latter mainly in the case of transfers from other schools where they were not given Carden training. (The teachers were given considerable freedom to decide whether to give the Carden type of instruction to pupils entering the school in the second or a later grade.)

The Gates tests were given in June 1958, and all other data were computed to that date.

Table 1 shows the actual grade positions and the average reading grades as of June 1958 of those pupils who had received one year or more of instruction in the Carden system.

These data make the Carden system look good; in all three grades the pupils raised on Carden instruction are about a full year ahead of their grade in reading ability. But before we join Terman and Walcutt in giving unqualified praise to this method, let us take a look at the intellectual level of these children. The average mental ages, converted into mental grades, are shown in Table 2.

In all three grades the average reading grade falls below the mental grade. These children, taught by the Carden method, are not reading quite up to their mental level; they

*Julie Hay and Charles E. Wingo, *Reading With Phonics* (Chicago: Lippincott, 1954, Revised.)

†Sibyl Terman and Charles C. Walcutt, *Reading Chaos and Cure* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), pp. 139-142.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF GRADE POSITIONS AND READING GRADES

	N	Av. No. Years Carden	Grade Position	Av. Read. Grade	Diff.
Grade 3	91	2.85	3.9	4.86	0.96
Grade 4	80	3.33	4.9	5.97	1.07
Grade 5	72	3.42	5.9	6.88	0.98

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF MENTAL GRADES AND READING GRADES

	N	Mental Grade	Read. Grade	Diff.	A.Q.*
Grade 3	91	5.30	4.86	0.44	.92
Grade 4	80	6.10	5.97	0.13	.97
Grade 5	72	7.00	6.88	0.12	.98

*Reading Grade divided by Mental Grade often called the "Accomplishment Quotient."

read slightly less well than do children of the same age and intelligence (or scholastic aptitude) in the average American public school. In other words the A.Q. (Accomplishment Quotient) is less than one hundred.

In this school the Carden reading program certainly did not achieve "such success as to bring tears of pride"* to the cheeks of teachers and parents. For a decade the teachers in this school had given the Carden system a fair and competent trial, but the majority gradually came to believe that it was unsatisfactory.

One teacher said, "We realized for a long time that our children were not reading as well as youngsters of their intelligence should. The tremendously heavy program of sounding and pronouncing words and drill on rules in the first two grades seems to take the life out of reading for many children. We tried hard to build up new zest for reading in later grades,

but many children just never came quite alive again." Instead of "resigning rather than using another method," the teachers in this school requested that the Carden system be replaced by another program. The Carden system was dropped at the end of the 1959-60 school year.†

Further analyses of the data were made for several reasons, mainly to determine whether the quantity of Carden training (the number of years devoted to it) bore any relationship to reading achievement. If such a relationship did exist, it would be shown by the coefficients of correlation between the two variables.

Intercorrelations of all the vari-

†Lest someone assume that the writer of this paper or the findings presented in it had something to do with this change, the author wishes to state that neither had any influence whatsoever. The results of the study were not even known to him until September 1960, and he had had no communication and no personal contact with anyone in these schools concerning the Carden or any other reading method until many months after the Carden system had been dropped.

*Terman and Walcutt, *op. cit.*, p. 142.

TABLE 3

INTERCORRELATIONS IN A GROUP OF 267 PUPILS FROM GRADES 3, 4, AND 5

Variables	Carden Method	M.A.	Reading Speed	Reading Vocab.	Reading Comp.	Total Reading
Amount Carden Instruction	—	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.04
Mental Age	0.02	—	0.63	0.62	0.62	0.68
Reading Speed	0.04	0.63	—	0.71	0.72	0.88
Reading Vocabulary	0.03	0.62	0.71	—	0.80	0.92
Reading Comprehension	0.03	0.62	0.72	0.80	—	0.93
Total Reading	0.04	0.68	0.88	0.92	0.93	—

ables listed above were computed separately for (1) the entire population of 267 pupils, (2) the 91 pupils in grade 3, (3) the 89 pupils in grade 4, (4) the 87 pupils in grade 5, and those in each of the twelve classes—a total of sixteen intercorrelation tables. All the analyses pointed to the same general conclusions which are indicated in Table 3. This table includes the relevant parts of the table of intercorrelations computed for the total group of 267 pupils.*

The intercorrelations in Table 3 confirm the generally accepted assumption that a child's intelligence (mental age) is, other things being equal, a powerful determiner of his reading ability. Although mental age is not perfectly measured in this school (since different intelligence tests were used and examinations were scattered over several years), the coefficients with every reading test are substantial. In comparison, the number of years of instruction by the Carden method shows zero correlations with reading ability; the coefficients differ from zero only by chance. In other words, on the average the pupils to whom the Carden

method was taught throughout their entire school career were no better readers than those who received half as much Carden training or none at all. Since all the other fifteen tables of intercorrelations confirmed this general finding, only this one will be reproduced in this report.† The Carden method, in and of itself, produced no improvement in reading over and above that obtained by the teachers not using it. The fact that the degree of reading ability developed in these classes was scarcely as great as that produced in pupils of the same mental age in the country at large justifies the suspicion that the Carden system was a handicap rather than a help to these teachers. They expect to do, and the writer predicts they will do, better teaching without it in the future.

As a further check on the findings, another statistical analysis, by means of the method of covariance, was carried out. If the amount of Carden instruction had any appreciable influence in improving reading performance, when the role of intel-

†All the statistical analyses reported in this paper were recommended, made, and scrutinized by Professor Irving Lorge, Director of the Institute of Psychological Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, and his statistical staff.

*Including pupils who had received no Carden training and were therefore omitted from Tables 1 and 2.

ligence and sampling errors are eliminated, this analysis would have shown it. It did not. The verdict was: Carden method "not significant" in every one of the twelve classes.

These results suggest that when qualified teachers, such as those found in this school, are not teaching Carden phonics, they are giving other forms of instruction which are better. This assumption would account for the fact that the pupils who received, on the average, several years of Carden instruction fell below or, at best, barely equaled the average norms or attainments of pupils of equivalent intelligence, and the further fact that the children taught the method throughout their whole school career were, on the average, equally undistinguished. The variety of insights and techniques of value in developing skills in word recognition and methods of adapting and teaching them to meet the widely differing needs of pupils are described in brief and in detail in many available textbooks, manuals, and articles, and in college teacher-training courses. And good teachers know them today. It seems clear that a formidable, time-consuming program, such as the Carden, would interfere with a good teacher's most effective work by wasting time, dulling interest, and producing an unbalanced array of techniques, including some that are futile or misleading.

But, if it is true, as Terman and Walcutt state, that splendid results have been secured in certain schools using the Carden system, how are we

to explain it? The surest way to get good results in teaching reading with any method is to use it in a school which has bright children and able and devoted teachers. There are many such schools in the New York area. It should be noted that Terman and Walcutt present Miss Carden as "a genius," a woman of "infinite patience" whose "abilities in coordinating and organizing a program are dazzling."* The findings in this study suggest that what teachers should try to get from Miss Carden is her inspiring personal leadership and not her system of phonics instruction.

The findings of this study do not suggest that teaching phonics is futile or unnecessary. They show merely that the much less complex and less rigid programs employed in most American schools during the past decade produce reading abilities equal to, or somewhat better, than the Carden system in much less time and with less effort. Finally, nothing appearing in the results of this study suggests that we should not try hard to improve instruction in developing word-recognition skills in the future, but the results clearly and emphatically indicate that improvements are most unlikely to be found by searching in the direction taken by the Carden and similar elaborate and unrealistic systems.

**Op. cit.*, p. 112.

(*Dr. Arthur Gates has been an Emeritus Professor at Teachers College, Columbia University, since 1956, and since that date has been Supervisor of Research in the Institute of Language Arts.*)

Who said, "Go to the Attic for Children's Books"?

by NANCY LARRICK

STARVATION CAN drive us to desperation. But it need not if we appraise carefully and think big. This is particularly true in our search for a wide variety of tempting reading materials for children.

Yet again and again, I hear the suggestions: "Go to the attic for children's books. Have the children bring in their old books for classroom reading." And some more aggressive teachers write to publishers asking for free copies of books that are damaged or have been a drag on the market.

I can't imagine a school dietitian settling for a menu of wood chips or asking the A&P manager for cast-off lettuce leaves and week-old milk to feed her little ones. Instead, she selects carefully so that she can provide a menu that is both nutritious and delicious. *She never assumes that children deserve less than the best.*

This is what I mean by appraising carefully and thinking big. We take this for granted in providing for the physical growth of children. But even teachers and librarians, who should be equally concerned with children's reading growth, settle for less than the best in many instances. Children don't blossom on second-rate books anymore than they do on a diet of grits alone.

I am convinced that we have thousands of cases of "reading rickets" because of dietary deficiencies in the reading materials we provide.

Part of the trouble is that we permit ourselves to think of going to the attic to find children's books.

Maybe I have lived under poor attic conditions. But unlike the apartment dwellers and split-levelers of this world, I *have* lived with an attic. But, so help me, our attic never had any reading matter that would have interested one child in ten thousand. Old law books, discarded volumes of orations, dreary looking sets of Scott and Dickens, receipts of old bills, church pamphlets (unread and long out-of-date). If a teacher had told me to search our attic for reading material, I would have known that reading was for the junk heap.

What about asking children to bring in books they have discarded? It's a pretty sorry collection except in those communities where parents have selected and provided good books on their own. And even a good book is not inviting when the pages are torn or defaced by a little brother's crayons.

Fortunately publishers don't have seconds to give to schools. And when a children's book is a flop, the remainders are sold by the ton, not one by one to schools.

Back of each hard-pressed teacher is the shadow of that dirty demon who has driven her to these desperate efforts—M O N E Y. "Good books cost money," she says. "And our appropriation is small."

What about the dietitian in the

same school? Does she let that dirty demon drive her to serve skim milk or even empty plates? I never heard of it. And I never heard of a football coach sending his players to the attic to dig up old uniforms as acceptable substitutes for the present day. But I did hear of a high school in Pennsylvania which had \$60,000 lights on the athletic field and "less than a dozen books" in the school library. Somebody was thinking big in that school. But it wasn't the reading consultant, for sure.

He was probably caught in that box most of us have found ourselves in at one time or another: Trying to cut the program to fit the authorized allocation of money. This is what I call "thinking little." Or maybe we should call it, "thinking backwards." For surely the place to begin is with evaluating children's needs.

We agree that children need a rich array of appealing books to read in school and out. With so many children, we need so many books. They will cost so much. (The American Association of School Librarians says the annual budget for printed materials in the school library should be four to six dollars per student.)

Remember the dietitian who counts the children and orders the milk, according to their needs. The budget is adjusted to meet the need she spells out with mathematical exactness. She never considers watering down the milk or closing the lunchroom on alternate days to meet budget limitations. Fresh, whole milk, she says, for every child every day. The budget is planned accordingly.

The same unswerving determination on the part of teachers, principals, reading consultants, and librarians has produced adequate budgets for good books and good school libraries in many communities. "Our children deserve the best," they have said. "They deserve the best children's books and plenty of them." They are thinking big and getting results.

But thinking big requires expert advice in making plans and selecting books. Fortunately there are excellent guides which give practical suggestions for principals, supervisors, school librarians, reading consultants and classroom teachers.

For Help in Over-all Planning

Every Child Needs a School Library. by Mary Virginia Gaver, 16 pages. American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 11. Sold only in quantity: 5 copies, \$1.25.

Standards for School Library Programs. American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 11. \$2.50.

"How to Start an Elementary School Library." Free folder of basic information. American Library Association, 50 E. Huron Street, Chicago 11.

For Help in Book Selection

Basic Book Collection for Elementary Schools and *Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools.* American Library Association, 50 E. Huron Street, Chicago 11. \$2.00 each.

Children's Books Too Good to Miss. Press of Western Reserve University, 2040 Adelbert Rd., Cleveland 6. \$1.25.

Bibliography of Children's Books. Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington 16, D. C. \$1.50.

Best Books for Children. R. R.

Bowker Company, 62 W. 45 St., New York 36. \$2.00.

A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books by Nancy Larrick. Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc. \$4.95.

(Nancy Larrick, teacher, lecturer, editor, and author, is well known for her contributions to good literature and good books for children.)

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Some Difficulties Which Indian Children Encounter with Idioms in Reading

by MAURINE DUNN YANDELL AND MILES V. ZINTZ

IN NEW MEXICO there are many Navajo, Apache, and Pueblo Indian pupils, as well as a high percentage of Spanish-American pupils, in the public schools. These pupils, a bilingual group, must depend at least to some extent on their translation of our ideas and concepts. When they encounter idiomatic expressions, they meet with almost insurmountable obstacles, because idioms do not translate literally. Yet, the reading text which the Indian child uses contains English idioms throughout.

Orpha McPherson, who is a consultant to the bulletin *Indian Education*, has written that the many idioms in the English language may lead to wrong understanding until explained. When new expressions or idioms appear, she urges the teacher to take nothing for granted and to see that every means possible is employed to explain them. She further states, "Someone has said there are three steps in teaching a child to learn a new language—experience, experience, experience."*

The purpose of this study was to determine the efficiency of ethnic groups of children in the use of English idiomatic expressions as found in standard reading texts in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. A study of the idioms used in readers and a survey

of the extent to which they are understood furnishes information useful in the teaching of reading. Teachers must understand the need for special instruction to overcome this obstacle.

Method

(1) A multiple-choice, 90-item idioms test was prepared by selecting the idiomatic expressions used in fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade commonly used basic reading texts. Readers from the intermediate grade levels of recent copyright date which are published by Ginn and Company, Scott, Foresman and Company, and Row, Peterson and Company were selected. (2) The idioms test was administered to 390 control sixth-grade Anglos to establish norms for comparison. (3) The idioms test was then administered to 516 sixth-grade students in Gallup-McKinley County, which included Anglo, Spanish, Zuni, and Navajo ethnic groups. (4) Implications for education were formulated for the teacher of reading in the elementary school, based on the performance of children from minority groups.

Preparation of the test. From correspondence with publishers of several major book companies, it was found that none of the companies could furnish a list of idioms which appear in their readers. The idioms are used in the context of the stories,

*"Problems of the Bilingual Child," *Indian Education*, 289 (November 1, 1956).

and some mention may be made of an idiom in the teacher's edition of the reader. However, an organized plan to teach the idioms to children who learn English as a foreign language is lacking.

Idiomatic expressions were lifted from the readers in an exact quotation, or complete sentence whenever feasible. Four multiple-choice answers were provided for each item. In addition to the correct meaning, an attempt was made to give the literal interpretation of the idiom and two related but incorrect, choices. Thirty items for each grade level were selected for final inclusion in the test. Six sample items follow:

"Got cold feet, did you," teased one of the boys.

- a. became afraid
- b. became very cold
- c. got cold and went home
- d. feet were cold

"Now I have let the cat out of the bag," chuckled Mr. Burd.

- a. let the cat jump out of the bag
- b. forgot to tie the string
- c. told the secret
- d. let the cat make too much noise

"He did a splendid job of locking the barn door after the horse was stolen."

- a. looking for the horse
- b. being careful after it's too late
- c. locking the door to protect the horse
- d. being careful before danger comes

"So you've definitely decided to let Hastings go to the dogs."

- a. go from bad to worse
- b. to do what is right
- c. play with the dogs
- d. go with the dogs.

"Uncle John doesn't expect us for five or six months, and we've burned our bridges behind us."

- a. already crossed the bridge
- b. burned everything we don't need
- c. made our decisions and can't change our minds now
- d. set fire to the bridge after we crossed it

"May I give you a lift, sir?" he asked.

- a. lift you up
- b. give you a ride
- c. help you lift something
- d. give you something light

Reliability of the test. The reliability of the idiom test was determined by the split-half method (odd and even items) and use of the Spearman-Brown formula. Samples from each ethnic group were taken at random by use of a table of random numbers. In the larger population groups—Navajo and Anglo—a sample of twenty was used; for the smaller groups—Spanish and Zuni—a sample of ten was used. The reliability coefficients, and their corresponding standard errors, for the scores of the four samples of ethnic groups were as follows: Spanish, .916 (.051); Navajo, .912 (.038); Zuni, .906 (.057); Anglo, .754 (.096). It was concluded that the idioms test was a reliable instrument.

Results

In order to compare the relative positions of the different ethnic groups, raw scores were converted into percentiles. The table shows the percentiles for the control Anglo groups of Albuquerque, New Mexico, and Waterloo, Iowa, as well as the group of Gallup-McKinley County. The table is read as follows: A raw score of 34 earned by a subject in the Waterloo group ranked at the 01 percentile score *for his group*. The 01 percentile score for the Albuquerque group was 31; for the Gallup-McKinley County Anglo group it was 20; for the Spanish-American group it was 18; for the

PERCENTILE EQUIVALENTS OF RAW SCORES EARNED BY
ETHNIC AND CONTROL GROUPS
(Sixth Grade Pupils)

Percentile	Control Groups		Gallup-McKinley County				Total, Four County Groups N=516
	Waterloo N=153	Albuquerque N=237	Anglo N=164	Spanish N=76	Zuni N=52	Navajo N=224	
99	84	84	82	78	74	64	81
90	79	78	77	66	58	48	72
80	76	76	75	62	52	43	65
75	76	75	74	60	46	40	63
70	75	74	73	58	43	38	59
60	73	72	70	52	41	33	50
50	71	71	68	49	39	30	43
40	69	69	65	44	34	26	36
30	68	66	62	38	28	23	31
25	67	65	61	34	26	22	27
20	65	62	57	32	24	21	26
10	57	55	45	25	17	17	20
05	50	45	31	21	14	16	17
02	38	39	25	20	12	13	14
01	34	31	20	18	10	12	12

Zuni group it was 10; for the Navajo it was 12; and for the total Gallup-McKinley County Group it was 12.

To make a comparison between the groups in another way, the raw score of 65 falls at the 20th percentile in the Waterloo group, at the 25th percentile in the Albuquerque group, at the 40th percentile in the Gallup-McKinley group, above the 80th percentile in the Spanish group, above the 90th percentile for the Zuni group, and the 99th percentile for the Navajo. Progressively larger percentages of different ethnic groups scored below 65.

When the performance of the minority ethnic groups was compared to that of the control group, a significant difference was found in

the means between the control group and each ethnic group. Percentile ranks prepared on the control group indicated the 50th percentile to be a raw score of 71. Whereas, when compared to this control group, the median score for the Spanish-American ranked in the 5th percentile, the median score for the Zuni ranked in the 2nd percentile, and the median score for the Navajo ranked in the 1st percentile.

Average reading levels based on results of the Stanford Achievement test were available on many pupils in Gallup-McKinley County Schools. A sample was taken from the two larger ethnic groups, 110 from the Anglo group, and 77 from the Navajo. The sample was restricted

to pupils whose reading level on the Stanford Achievement Test was 4.0 or above. It was felt by the investigator that this limitation would be more likely to reveal evidence pertinent to this study. If a sixth-grade pupil were reading at a level lower than 4.0, he was unquestionably having difficulties with reading without the involvement of the idiom. Forty-seven per cent of the Navajo pupils in the sixth grade from the schools used in this particular sample were rejected because their average reading level on the Stanford Achievement test was below the grade level of 4.0. In contrast, only 5 per cent of the Anglo pupils were not included because they scored lower than 4.0 on average reading.

The reading level and the score on the idioms test of individual pupils were matched, and a Pearson coefficient of correlation was computed between the scores to determine the interrelation between these two variables. A very high positive correlation was found between the reading levels and scores on the idioms test for both

Anglo and Navajo pupils. The correlation for the Navajo was .941, for the Anglo pupils, .721, both significant at the 1 per cent level of confidence. The mean reading grade level of the Anglo group was 7.26 and that of the Navajo was 4.60; the mean on the idiom test of this sample was 65.93 for the Anglo and 36.30 for the Navajo.

Implications

It seems clear that there is a need to develop a better understanding of the idioms of the English language among bilingual pupils. Special explanations and illustrations should be given before idioms are introduced in the stories in reading textbooks.

This investigation also indicates that experimental studies in the direct teaching of idiomatic expressions may be in order.

(Mrs. Yandell is a sixth-grade teacher in the New Mexico school system of her study and Dr. Zintz is an Associate Professor of Elementary Education at the University of New Mexico.)

From the Clip Sheet

Easy-To-Read

How gratifying to find that the interest in trade books for beginning readers wasn't a passing fad! Now Beginner Books (Random House), in addition to their regular books, have published three Beginning Beginners: *Green Eggs and Ham*, by

Dr. Seuss (50-word vocabulary); *Put Me in the Zoo*, by Robert Lopshire (100-word vocabulary); and *Are You My Mother?* by P. D. Eastman (100-word vocabulary). Each of the books is illustrated by its author. Beginner Books and Beginning Beginners sell for \$1.95 each.

Schools and Clinics to Visit

by MARTHA CASEY AND ELIZABETH RUCK

SCHOOLS AND reading clinics in and around St. Louis welcome the guests who plan to visit them as part of the activities of the Sixth Annual Conference of the International Reading Association. This material has been compiled by the Chairman and Co-Chairman of this feature of the Conference.

Special Remedial Reading Program

In some St. Louis public schools a special remedial reading teacher is on the faculty. This teacher helps the severely retarded pupils who cannot be sufficiently helped by an adjusted reading program in a self-contained classroom. This program is designed to meet a situation created by a changing school population and a decreasing I.Q. The great influx of transients has made it necessary to extend the scope of the program beyond the usual classroom procedure.

The teacher follows the clinical plan of diagnosis. Materials and techniques fit the needs of the individual pupil. The enrollment in each group depends upon the needs of the school. In some instances, the program starts with the third grade and goes through the eighth grade. In other cases, where the middle grades have more pupils needing special help, the grade spread is limited. The groups are made up of pupils recommended by the classroom teacher. The minimum in a group is usually three, the

maximum about ten. All pupils are periodically tested and reclassified as achievement indicates.

Rooms of Twenty

The Rooms of Twenty were organized in the St. Louis Public Schools in September 1953 to provide concentrated instruction in learning fundamentals to small groups who were not ready to enter the fourth grade. Dr. William Kottmeyer, Assistant Superintendent of the St. Louis Public Schools, conceived and initiated the idea of the Rooms of Twenty. He could foresee the advantages of a concentrated and limited curriculum, small groups, and good teaching.

The five teachers of the first experimental groups were able to show about twice the progress to be expected from children without learning handicaps. As a result, thirty-seven such Rooms of Twenty were organized at the beginning of the next school year.

A variety of textbooks, workbooks and teaching aids, as well as the regular instructional materials, are provided for the Rooms of Twenty. Practice for Building Language, Phonics We Use Series, Eye and Ear Fun Series, Sounds the Letters Make Chart, Basic Sight Vocabulary Cards, Picture Word Cards, Group Word Teaching Game, Sound Wheels are a few of the interesting instructional materials.

The Rooms of Twenty answer the needs of those who do not achieve the final primary levels in reading, spelling, language, handwriting, and arithmetic when most children are ready to move into the fourth grade. These pupils can usually be identified with reasonable certainty at the end of E-1 (three-low) or E-2 (three-high) semesters. They are instructed in small groups, not exceeding twenty, by teachers who are especially able in teaching skills subjects. The curriculum places major stress upon the language areas and number skills, and every effort is made to bring these pupils through the top levels of the primary school. Should longer than a semester be required to do so, pupils are profitably instructed in such rooms until they have spent a maximum of five years (including kindergarten) in the primary school. Pupils who do not achieve the last primary levels in five years properly become clinic cases for individual instruction.

Self-Contained Classroom Reading Program

The classroom teacher needs an adjusted program to fit the varying needs of the pupils, and this is done by grouping pupils according to reading ability. Basal readers and workbooks are used at each grade level. Other materials used are supplementary readers, library books for recreational reading, and independent workbook materials. Each group works with carefully selected materials geared to its level, and pupils progress at their own rate.

The number of groups into which a class is divided is usually three as this has proven the most satisfactory.

Reading Clinics

Five centers, or clinics, provide services for the St. Louis Public Schools, each clinic serving a group of neighboring schools.

The five clinics are: *Ashland Reading Clinic*, 3915 N. Newstead Avenue; *Banneker Reading Clinic*, 2840 Lucas Avenue; *Long Reading Clinic*, 5028 Morganford Road; *South Grand Reading Clinic*, 1532 South Grand Boulevard; *Turner Branch Reading Clinic*, 2615 Pendleton Avenue.

The clinics perform two basic services: (1) *Diagnosis of Reading Disability*. Clinical diagnosis includes a mental performance test, visual screening, audiometer test, general physical examination, silent and oral reading tests, spelling test, an analysis of word perception skills, and, when necessary, diagnosis of emotional difficulties. (2) *Remedial Training*. The clinics provide remedial teaching for as many severely retarded readers as the staff can deal with at any given time. The clinics accept new pupils at the beginning of the semester and attempt to provide service for some pupils from all the schools in the district.

Pupils are assigned to the clinics two or three, occasionally four or five, forty-five- or sixty-minute instructional periods per week, depending on the individual needs. Pupils pay their own carfare to and from the clinics. Most pupils are given

individual instruction when they first enter the clinic, but may work in very small groups after they become independent in word perception skills. Pupils are usually held for clinic instruction until they can perform independently with books in their home classrooms.

Gifted Classes

Organization and development of the St. Louis program. The St. Louis Public Schools began a program for superior pupils in September 1955. Some 260 pupils met the requirements and were organized into sixth-grade classes at nine geographically distributed centers. In the 1956-57 school year these pupils moved to the seventh grade, and 280 new sixth graders entered the program. In September of 1957 the third group of 290 sixth graders came in, and in January 1958 the first group entered the high school. In 1958-59 the program was extended to include fifth-grade pupils. At present approximately 1200 pupils are in the classes in these centers: *Ashland School*, 3921 N. Newstead Avenue; *Buder School*, 5319 Lansdowne Avenue; *Dewey School*, 6746 Clayton Avenue; *Fanning School*, 3417 Grace Avenue; *Mallinckrodt School*, 6020 Pernod Avenue; *Nottingham School*, 4915 Donovan Avenue; *Scruggs School*, 4611 S. Grand Boulevard; *Wade School*, 2030 S. Vandeventer Avenue; *Walnut Park School*, 5814 Thekla Avenue.

Selection standards. All fourth-grade pupils are given a group intelligence test (Lorge-Thorndike).

Those scoring 115 or above on this test (others may be tested on the recommendation of the principal) are given a Binet by a psychological examiner from the Test Service Section of the St. Louis Public Schools. To be considered for the gifted classes a pupil must score an I.Q. of 130 or better on the Binet test. Secondly, the pupil must score at least up to his grade placement in reading, language, and arithmetic on standardized tests. Thirdly, the principal of the sending school must recommend the pupil and certify that the pupil will, in the principal's and the teacher's judgment, be able to adjust satisfactorily to the program. Finally, the parent must signify his consent to have the pupil enter the program.

Curriculum. In the elementary school classes the pupils are given conversational French for three years (thirty minutes daily), textbook French for one year. A special four-year physics-mathematics course is provided. Special instruction in rapid reading is given at the fifth- and sixth-grade levels. One period weekly is given to art by special instructors. Industrial arts for boys and home-making for girls are given in the seventh grade only. The usual amount of time is given to physical education.

Most of the instructional content of Grades Five, Six, Seven, and Eight is completed by the end of the seventh grade. In Grade Eight pupils take the ninth-grade English, algebra, French, social studies, and basic science courses. They are carefully

tested in these areas before they enter the high school. They may earn a year's credit, a half-year's credit, or none at all depending upon their test performance. There is no chronological acceleration, i.e., pupils do not enter the high school sooner than other pupils. They may, however, enter the high school with one year of credit in French, algebra, English, and social studies, and there take second-year English, second-year French, second-year social studies, and geometry. They take biology as their first-year science subject.

Joplin Plan

Grades four, five, and six are most generally included in this plan.

The children are grouped in accordance with their acquisition of reading skills. At a set time each day the pupils move to an assigned teacher for one hour of reading instruction. Within these larger groups individual help or small group instruction is given when needed. Special materials are provided, enrichment for some, materials below grade level for others.

Junior and Senior High Schools

In the junior and senior high schools the reading program may be directed toward the slow learner, or

it may be planned for the under-achiever in reading. The reading period may supplement a regularly scheduled English period or it may be the English period with an especially heavy emphasis on reading.

On the junior high school level, particularly, reading is included in the core or block program. In those schools where ability grouping is practiced the core program lends itself to the various needs of the individual students.

Washington University

Washington University Study Skills Workshop is a reading laboratory offering diagnostic, advisory, and instructional help to college students working in groups or individually. Students may be enrolled by referral or may voluntarily apply for help, counseling, and instruction at any time.

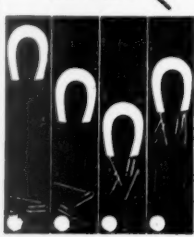
Each student is aided with materials suited to his own problems and achievement level, and therefore may work without group competition. Reading vocabulary, study habits, and scholastic accomplishments are involved as well as basic language skills (exposition, grammar, spelling, cursive writing, etc.).

Study Skills Workshop is a service of the Office of the Dean of Students.

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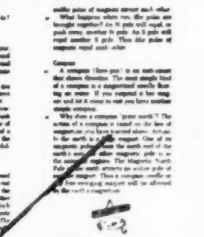
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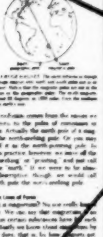
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H-5

MAGNETS





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text selection
illustration question
inference question

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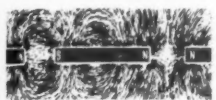
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selection-related study skill activity

QUESTIONS

Read the selection and answer the questions. You must first read the selection carefully. Then answer the questions. Write your answers in the space provided. You may use the selection to help you.

Read the selection and answer the questions. You must first read the selection carefully. Then answer the questions. Write your answers in the space provided. You may use the selection to help you.



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QUESTIONS

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What RESEARCH Says to the Reading Teacher

BY

AGATHA TOWNSEND

Consultant, Educational Records Bureau

Toward a Bibliography of William S. Gray

The professional life of Dr. William S. Gray was for over thirty years clearly at the heart of progress in reading theory and practice. Such a statement is so obviously a truism that its expression should be shunned, were it not for the fact that it serves in itself as the reason for a bibliographical effort like that which occupies this column this month. Collected here is an incomplete but probably representative list of the publications issued by Dr. Gray from 1915, which saw the first printings of the *Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs*, to 1960, which fittingly enough saw as one of his great contributions the articles on reading in the third edition of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*.

The historian of the reading "movements" of our day will find reflected the interest paid to classroom instruction throughout these years (5, 10, 14, 16, 17, 22, 34). Remedial and corrective measures, based on scientific diagnosis, also received considerable attention (2, 7, 8), but failed to overshadow the constant emphasis on the developmental challenge — helping all

readers, not exclusively the retarded, to achieve their highest potential levels. Recognition that high levels of competence are not only possible to many readers, but are also urgently required by our society, led to a further interest in the kinds of reading which are mature in every sense—adult, skillful, and penetrating (14, 23, 32, 33, 36). Early and late (4, 38) there is reference to the vital place of interest and the challenge of research in interests and their relation to reading habits and progress.

In spite of the breadth of field already reflected in this list, it should be noted that one major type of publication is barely mentioned here. The constant review of reading research occupied much time and effort, and even alone would stand—for most of us—as a permanent monument. Space alone, then, has deleted from this set of references the thirty citations which would be required for the yearly "Summary of Reading Investigations." Those appearing in 1931 and 1932 will be found in the *Elementary School Journal* and those from 1933 on are in their familiar place in the *Journal of Educational Research*. Special re-

search summaries are in this reference listed from point to point (3, 15, 28, 29, 30).

As an editor, too, Dr. Gray was justly famous. At least twenty of the *Supplementary Educational Monographs* issued by the University of Chicago Press summarize the summer Chicago reading conferences, and other conference proceedings, including those of the International Reading Association, have claimed his attention. These citations, too, would be required for a complete bibliography.

The research worker in the field of reading will recognize at once that a bibliography like this one is more than a gesture of respect to a noted scholar. No matter how greatly such a gesture might be appropriate, the real value of such a list is in its content, and the contributions that it may make to the continuing study of reading teaching and theory. The suggestions and urgings for further research which are included in many articles should indeed be required reading for all of us. The constant emphasis on sound, thorough, understanding as a basis for action is a lesson for all teachers. And the breadth and depth of interest, ranging from the individual pupil in the single classroom to the world of reading in fourteen languages, is a call to vision. With no more apology, herewith is an approach to the bibliography of Dr. William S. Gray.

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What Other Magazines Say About READING

BY

MURIEL POTTER LANGMAN

Eastern Michigan University and Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan

AARON, IRA E. "Comparisons of Good and Poor Readers in Fourth and Eighth Grades." *Journal of Educational Research*, September 1960, Vol. 54, No. 1.

In this study measures of spelling, spelling of phonetic syllables, syllabication (application of rules), and intelligence were used in a design to compare relative ability of good and poor readers. Spelling was measured by a sixty-word list dictation test developed by the experimenter and comprising in equal proportions words either purely phonetic, partially phonetic (containing double letters, silent *e* and vowel digraphs with one vowel silent), and words non-phonetic in at least one element, e.g., *island*. The same test was given to both grade levels. The spelling of phonetic syllables test required the spelling of nonsense syllables, any reasonable phonetic spelling being accepted as correct. The syllabication test contained nonsense words to be broken into syllables in accordance with four principles usually taught in reading instruction before the end of primary grades, i.e., a consonant comes between two vowels; two vowels come between two consonants; a consonant is followed by *le*; and *d* or *t* is followed by *ed*. There were twenty-five "words."

The California Test of Mental Maturity Non-Language Section was also used.

As would be expected, good readers differed significantly from poor readers on all four measures, although the relationship was not perfect. Some good readers did not perform well on one or more measures, while some poor readers performed well on one or more measures. The experimenter concluded that though certain skills and abilities may be associated with good reading performance, individual children may be good readers, yet be deficient in one or more of these skills. On the California Test of Mental Maturity (non-verbal) there was a difference of sixteen points between the means of the good and poor reader groups at fourth-grade level, and a difference of nineteen points at eighth-grade level. No discussion was given of the assumptions on which the study was based.

SHORES, J. H. "Reading of Science for Two Separate Purposes as Perceived by Sixth-Grade Students and Able Adult Readers." *Elementary English*, November 1960.

Dr. Shores contributes to our understanding of problems of teaching reading to middle grades, as he has already done many times before. He describes an important effort to deal with prob-

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The Appendixes have been extensively revised. New tests, and new editions of older tests, have required many changes in the descriptive listing of tests in Appendix A. Appendix B, a graded list of books for remedial reading, is mainly new.

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lems of reading comprehension of typical sixth-grade subject matter reading materials.

Two equated groups of sixth graders of average reading ability or better read an unfamiliar science passage. One group was instructed to read for the main idea, the other for sequence of ideas. The subjects responded to a questionnaire in which they reported how they thought they had proceeded in following the directions. In a second questionnaire they were asked how "the best reader in the world" would have proceeded. After nineteen such structured experiences the twentieth was administered individually instead of to the groups, and was taped.

Dr. Shores spent time working with both groups in the study, looking for answers to a series of questions related to comprehension skills in science, particularly comparison of the procedures of the children when reading "to get main ideas."

In the second part of the study advanced undergraduate or graduate students, used as the subjects, were guided through the same procedures with some minor changes, the question about the "best reader" being omitted. These subjects were selected as being able readers.

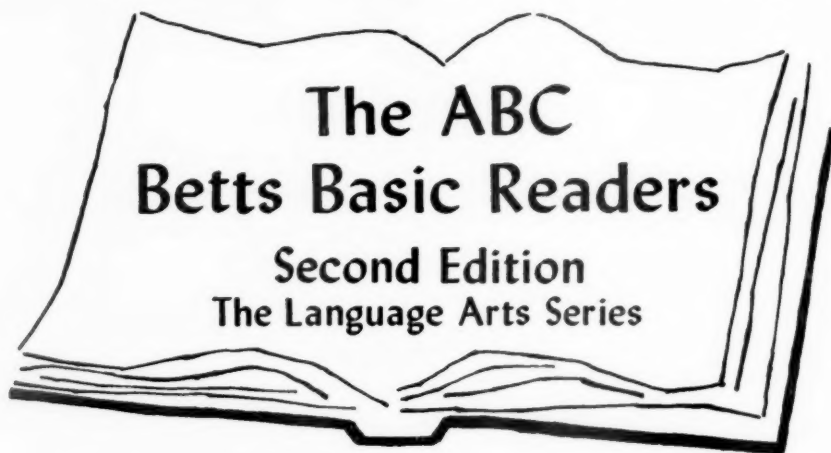
On the same test of reading for problem solving in science, the adults had an average accuracy score in reading for main ideas of 92 per cent as compared with 56 per cent for the sixth graders. In reading for idea sequence the two groups scored respectively 80 per cent and 42 per cent on materials selected to be equally suited to both levels of subjects.

After pointing out some possible criticisms of his design and the validity of his results, Dr. Shores explains that, on the whole, questions in the questionnaire could be answered objectively, and that responses were anonymous. He then compares the responses of the two groups in detail. The comparisons are illuminating and should be read by all teachers concerned with teaching children to read in subject matter areas. The experimenter sums up his results by saying that his *good* sixth-grade readers were far more immature in reading techniques than the adults, and he suggests some specific skills that need emphasis, especially flexibility. He believes that sixth graders could profit from more understanding of the nature of the reading process.

MARCUS, MARIE. "A Functional Language Program in Sixth Grade." *Elementary English*, October 1960.

In this stimulating description of a functional program for written expression, the basic technique was supervised experience in proofreading, in short, learning by doing. In the light of my own experience that college students consistently omit proofreading of their written work, and their frequently criticized weakness in language usage, this program seems to be getting at two much needed areas, not only usage, but the internalization of standards for usage. The study was conducted with a control group who were taught usage by means of systematic instruction in grammar and syntax. The experimental group excelled the control group when judged by such criteria as ratio of words to errors,

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identifying parts of speech, and a test of usage.

MORTENSEN, LOUISE H. "Idea Inventory," a regular feature, in *Elementary English*, October 1960.

This writer presents a brilliant exposition of how to teach literature to children, not only for comprehension and vocabulary, but for ethical applications to daily living.

ARCHER, MARGUERITE P. "Building Vocabulary with a Fourth Grade Class." *Elementary English*, November 1960.

This is a description of teaching to develop the use of variety in expressive language. The end-product of the simple procedure described is a list of 104 synonyms for *said*!

HILDRETH, GERTRUDE. "How Turkish Children Learn to Read." *Elementary School Journal*, October 1960.

Dr. Hildreth spent the 1959-60 school year in Turkey, and in this article presents some of her observations. She presents to us a picture of a strong elementary reading program, with effective instruction, good motivation for children, and available inexpensive materials.

Most children enter first grade at seven years of age, without previous experience in kindergarten. A few enter at six. One factor in the success of the program may be the nature of modern Turkish, which is a truly phonetic language, greatly reducing problems of word analysis and spelling. In instruction there is no naming, sounding or reading of isolated letters; the approach to phonics is intrinsic and inductive. Reading, spelling, handwriting, and written expression are

taught in an integrated fashion.

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By second grade the children are doing much individual silent reading, and as a comprehension check they take turns telling to their classmates what they have read. There is flexibility in scheduling, and all children are not necessarily reading at the same time. In third grade there is an increase in the variety of subject matter in the materials provided.

Dr. Hildreth also describes some of her observations on the teaching of writing and spelling. She comments on the probable advantages of beginning language arts instruction at age seven. She notes that the excellent instruction did not eliminate individual differences. Slow starters are identified very early, and an effort is made to help them at their own rate.

This article is wholly satisfying, because Dr. Hildreth has anticipated and answered all the questions we should like to ask about her experiences. She concludes with some comments about some probable advantages of a language with simplified, phonetic spelling.

SMITH, NILA BANTON. "Something Old, Something New in Primary Read-

ing." *Elementary English*, October 1960.

In this paper Dr. Smith points out that our "new ideas" about teaching reading through experiences, using criteria from child growth and development, and recognizing individual needs were first formulated in the seventeenth century and have been restated at intervals ever since. She comments on the contributions of Gestalt psychology to our concept of the "whole child," and its having helped us to understand the dynamics of differences among children, including the differential rate of development for the two sexes. One question arising from this new understanding is whether we ought to have a different curriculum and different norms for boys and girls.

Dr. Smith discusses audio-visual aids, particularly television, which, because of intrinsic interest for children may offer better ways of teaching some aspects of reading. She wisely points out here the importance of first-hand experience for the learning of younger children, and the changes in children's interests which are indicated by their television viewing choices. New insights into these differences in children's interests have stimulated new ideas for what should be the content of basal reading materials, and what uses can be made of trade books in early reading instruction. New types of trade books suitable to such use are appearing. The reduction of costs by use of paper covers has contributed toward a greater variety of materials in teaching.

Individualized reading instruction is

another "new" element, briefly discussed. Finally, the article concludes with pertinent comment on the new emphasis on *thinking* as a vital part of the reading process, one that can and should be taught. She offers some excellent suggestions on how teachers may make self-evaluations.

SKAPSKI, MARY K. "Ungraded Primary Reading Program: An Objective Evaluation." *Elementary School Journal*, October 1960.

This article describes a study in which achievement in the ungraded primary reading program was compared with the results in a more conventional program. The subjects in the ungraded program achieved significantly more in reading than the control group. Children of very superior intelligence profited most. A brief account of this study cannot do it justice. So—read it!

STAUFFER, RUSSELL G. "Individualized and Group Type Directed Reading Instruction." *Elementary English*, October 1960.

Dr. Stauffer reviews the history of the acceptance of individual differences over the last thirty years, then discusses the dynamics of the interrelationship between group and individualized reading. He stresses that in a good program there is not a dichotomy, but a wise use of each technique for different purposes. Like Dr. Smith in the article reviewed above, he stresses as the vital aspect of reading, the thinking process. The article provides many specific suggestions for teaching effective thinking and reading, and we need all the suggestions we can get.

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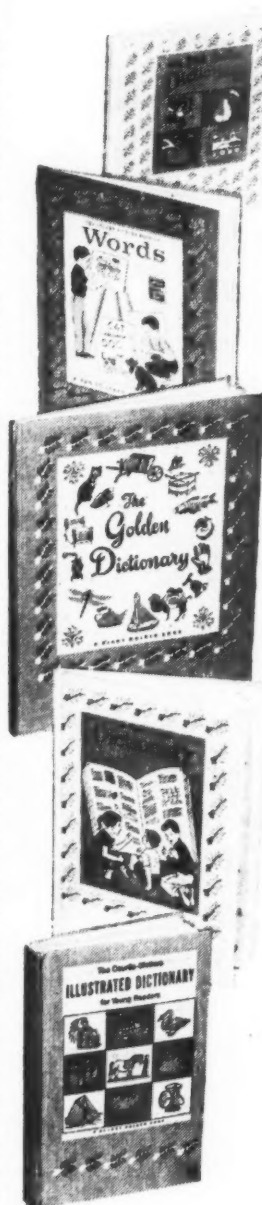
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HARRY T. HAHN

Oakland County Schools, Michigan

Conference Reports

FIGUREL, J. ALLEN, Ed. *New Frontiers in Reading*. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Volume V. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1960. Pp. 176. \$2.00.

The Fifth Annual Conference of the International Reading Association was held in New York City, May 6 and 7, 1960. Approximately four thousand delegates from all parts of the United States, Canada, and other countries gathered to hear forty-two prominent reading specialists discuss "New Frontiers in Reading." If you were not one of the lucky ones who attended this star-studded affair, you can read about it in detail. Dr. Figurel has done a splendid job in organizing and publishing the proceedings.

In his introduction Dr. Sterl Artley suggested that education, like science, industry, and medicine, is at the end of an era and on the threshold of another. Demands, pressures, and needs are forcing us to new frontiers in reading instruction. The speakers revealed the scope and complexity of those new frontiers in their discussions of differentiated programs to meet learners' needs, reading as related to mental health, reading in the total curriculum, and reading research activities. The reports deserve careful thought.

As we reflect on the era which has passed, we must ask ourselves, "Can we face the new frontiers in reading with confidence and security in our accumulated knowledge of how to teach children to read?" During the past decade have we taken the giant steps which have characterized industry, science, and medicine? Have we successfully launched our own satellites, and are they sending back strong signals to show us the way to further progress? As you read these provocative proceedings, see if there is evidence that we are content to sit and rake old coals. Note whether or not there is still a strong tendency to move from one extreme to the other and then become entrenched in a single track idea—to teach phonics or not to teach phonics, to use basal texts or to individualize reading instruction, to use this administrative device or that one, to spend time trying to resolve which one standardized test or which one skill builder will do the job for us. Are we marching to the new frontiers with our blinders preventing us from taking a good look at all of the many opportunities ahead?

KRESS, ROY A., Ed. *That All May Learn to Read*. Syracuse: School of Education, Syracuse University, 1960. Pp. 94. \$2.25.



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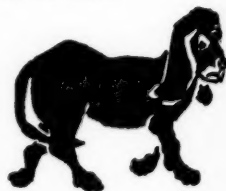


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A new annual conference blossomed on the campus of Syracuse University in the summer of 1959 under the capable guidance of Dr. Roy A. Kress. The papers presented at the conference, reported in this text, were organized to reveal the elements of a total reading program in which all children will have an opportunity to learn to read. William Sheldon, Marjorie Seddon Johnson, William Eller, Gardner Murphy, and Louis Fliegler were some of the contributors. Emmett Betts did a particularly effective job in his presentation of "Directed Reading Activities: Strategy and Attack." We can anticipate useful publications from this source in the years ahead.

For English Scholars

KENNEDY, ARTHUR G., and SANDS, DONALD B. *A Concise Bibliography for Students of English* (4th ed.). Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1960. Pp. 11 + 467. \$5.00.

Scholars of English and American language and literature will probably know well the earlier editions of this book (1940, 1945, 1954). This, the fourth edition, promises to be even more useful and to become better known than its predecessors. In addition to including a considerable number of new entries, covering the years between 1954 and 1960, the authors have almost completely revised the organization of the book. Gone is the wasteful system of entering a single title in numerous and occasionally remote categories; instead the number of categories has been quadrupled, and each title is entered only once, in its most appropriate category. This econ-

omy has permitted the authors to include almost three times as many entries as in the earlier editions. Less important, perhaps, but highly useful, is the addition in almost every category of a list of studies and monographs on the special area concerned, rather than the previous procedure of listing reference works alone. Moreover, in the many instances where these studies and monographs contain significant bibliographies themselves, that fact is noted.

The considerable expansion of this fourth edition, of course, tends to belie the word "concise" carried over from the title of its previous editions; but in view of the new and economical arrangement of the book, that is all to the good, and few of us will object to this paradoxical and isolated instance of getting more for our money than was possible six years ago. Included here are 5,438 separate entries, listed in fourteen major categories and 228 sub-categories. There are, in addition, two highly accurate indexes—one by author, editor, etc., the other by subject. Individual scholars will probably criticize many of the authors' selections—the inclusion of some titles and the omission of others—and this will no doubt be particularly true of their selections of special studies and monographs, where scholarly preferences often differ so markedly. But the work does not pretend to be exhaustive, and we should probably count ourselves fortunate indeed that its coverage is as extensive as it is. In short, considering both quality and quantity, I know of no better book bargain on the market today.—T. C. RUMBLE, *Wayne State University*

Helping Children Recognize Words

GRAY, WILLIAM S. *On Their Own in Reading*. Rev. Ed. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1960. Pp. 248. \$2.48.

One of the final significant achievements of Dr. William S. Gray, in a career which sparkled with brilliant accomplishments, is this expert revision of a long respected guide to ways of providing children with independence in analyzing new words. This is a complete revision of the earlier publication, giving full recognition to the many new studies in the area of the language arts.

According to Dr. Gray, the ultimate goals in word perception are: (1) to bring to an instantaneous perception a maximum number of words which the child can readily use and (2) to develop understandings, skills, and abilities that enable him to attack unfamiliar words independently. With this training behind him, the child will certainly be on his own in reading. The second goal is the topic of this book.

Teachers will be greatly pleased with the detailed and meaningful sequential program in word analysis so clearly outlined in this text. They will also find a very helpful chapter at the close of the book on the intelligent use of the English dictionary. What is more, they will appreciate the format which might lead to a standardized vocabulary for discussing word perception skills.

Teaching Critical Reading Skills

ALTICK, RICHARD D. *Preface to Critical Reading* (4th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960. Pp. 12 + 326. \$3.75.

Professor Altick's new edition of *Preface to Critical Reading* represents a thorough revision of the previous book. Having used the older editions, this reviewer feels justified in stating that the fourth edition is an excellent improvement of what was a teachable text. Intended primarily for college freshman English classes, the book could be used with college preparatory twelfth graders in English and reading improvement classes.

The organization in the earlier editions is preserved. Included are sections dealing with "connotation and denotation," "diction," "patterns of clear thinking," "sentences and paragraphs," and "tone." Each of these is treated clearly and in considerable detail. It should be remembered that this is a text intended for students who can read. The primary purpose of the text is to develop skill in the critical aspects of reading. Care has been taken to consider the individual needs of a class and of individuals. The simplicity of the text's organization makes it flexible, and no attempt has been made to prescribe a particular method for the instructor's use.

Treatments of the principles of logic are frequently difficult and dull. Professor Altick has written this section with unusual clarity and vigor. Well chosen exercises which require students to apply the principles of clear thinking to their reading and writing make this section especially strong. Equally significant is the section on "Sentences and Paragraphs." Skills acquired in the previous sections are focused on the problems of organizing material for compositions.

One of the chief merits of the book is its careful application of new research findings in reading, writing, and communication theory. Taken as a whole, this reviewer feels that *Preface to Critical Reading* is an excellent contribution to the reading and writing fields.—ROBERT BEAUCHAMP, *Wayne State University*

Keeping Parents Informed

KINDRED, LESLIE W. and ASSOCIATES. *How to Tell the School Story*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960. Pp. 500. \$6.75.

"Now we are going to study phonics!" This remark precedes the introduction of word study activities by an outstanding second-grade teacher of this reviewer's acquaintance. It is not surprising that she has excellent rapport with her children's parents. When the popular question is asked at the dinner table, "What did you learn today, Johnny?", you can anticipate that the response is a pleasing one.

Dr. Kindred and his associates in their chapter "Keeping Parents Informed" suggest that pupils top the list as the most important school public relations persons and are certainly the most potent medium for communication. Their suggestion for helping children crystallize ideas to take home is to ask, "What have we learned today and why?" Many suggestions like this make the book one that teachers might profitably scan in search of helpful practices.

How to Tell the School Story was evidently written for public relations persons or school administrators who want detailed information on how to

plan a complete school public relations program.

A Revitalized Literature Appreciation Program

JACOBS, LELAND B., JOHNSON, ELEANOR M., TURNER, JO JASPER, Editors, *Treasury of Literature Series*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1960.

Merry-Go-Round, Grade 1, \$2.40
Happiness Hill, Grade 2, \$2.52
Treat Shop, Grade 3, \$2.64
Magic Carpet, Grade 4, \$2.80
Enchanted Isles, Grade 5, \$2.80
Adventure Lands, Grade 6, \$2.96

There is certainly a need for an organized, well balanced literature appreciation program in our elementary schools. This is too often the forgotten area. We may believe that the basal program and independent reading of library books will do the job for us. It won't. Young people need careful guidance and direction in order to develop respect and enjoyment for excellence in prose and poetry.

New prose and poetry selections have been added to the early editions, and two new books, *Merry-Go-Round* at the first grade level and *Happiness Hill* at the second, have been published to make a complete grade one through six series. The editors did not lose their touch in identifying literary gems. Teachers will enjoy these stories and poems as much as the children.

Take a good look at the new teacher guidebooks for the first- and second-grade books. If you are seeking ideas for choral reading, creative expression, or techniques to correlate fine arts with literature, you will be pleased with the suggestions.

Outstanding texts—

Psychology in Teaching Reading

by HENRY P. SMITH, University of Kansas, and EMERALD DECHANT,
Fort Hays Kansas State College
May 1951 448 pp. Text price: \$6.75

Breaking the Reading Barrier

by DORIS WILCOX GILBERT, Reading Improvement and Reading Study
Programs, University of California, Berkeley
1959 paperbound 228 pp. Text price: \$3.95

Reading and Vocabulary Development, 2nd ed.

by CHRISTIAN O. WEBER, Wells College
1956 paperbound 168 pp. Text price: \$3.25
Teacher's Manual—\$.35 (Restricted)

Power and Speed in Reading

by DORIS WILCOX GILBERT, Reading Improvement and Reading Study
Programs, University of California, Berkeley
1956 paperbound 246 pp. Text price: \$3.95

Reading Skills

by WILLIAM D. BAKER, State University of New York, College for
Teachers at Buffalo
1953 120 pp. Text price: \$1.95
Instructor's Guide and Key—\$.25 (Restricted)

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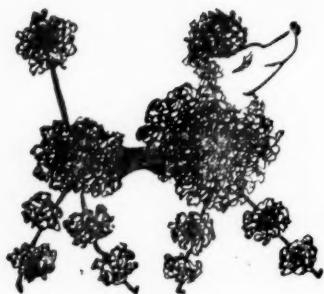
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Mary Elisabeth Coleman

University of Pennsylvania

Space Magazines

Librarians have often noted that boys who never withdraw a book may feel quite free to carry home an armload of magazines. Our local library has several copies each month of *Popular Mechanics Magazine* and *Popular Science Monthly*, which are literally read to pieces. There is an amazing number of periodicals devoted to narrow fields of science. "Aerospace Periodicals for Teachers and Pupils," by Willis C. Brown lists forty-one titles, some devoted entirely to model building, one limited to "technical and sporting aspects of gliding and soaring," a number devoted to space science and space travel, and one to helicopters. These are only samples of the range of the list.

Name, address, and subscription price is given for each periodical. Code letters indicate the major field of the magazine: general interest, model and hobby, flying, trade, engineering-technical. Entries are also coded to indicate age suitability: Junior—age, 10 to 20 years; senior—age, 21 years up. Publications Inquiry Unit, Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C. Give code number when ordering: OE-29010, Circular 556A, Revised 1960.

NCTE Publications

Among publications of its Golden

Anniversary Year, the National Council of Teachers of English has some that you will surely want to have. A bulletin for parents, *The First Two R's Plus*, considers the English curriculum from kindergarten to college.

Muriel Crosby is chairman of the committee that prepared the 1960 revision of *Adventuring With Books*, a booklist for elementary schools. Single copy, \$0.75; in lots of 20, \$0.60 each.

A reprint of six articles by Dr. Crosby that originally appeared in *Elementary English* is published under the title, *Teaching Children to Read*. \$0.50 each.

All these are available from the National Council of Teachers of English, 508 S. Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois. Send remittance with orders under \$5.00.

Biographies

Recent additions to the Piper Biographical Series (Houghton Mifflin Company) for middle-grade readers deal with the lives of Henry Clay, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, Sacajawea, and Abraham Lincoln. An adult who picked up a Landmark Book (Random House), and found himself unable to put it down, spoke appreciatively of the contrast between his son's understanding of history as the activities of

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(p.m.) Reading Skills for Interpreting Arithmetic Problems

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Wednesday: Understanding Science Through Reading

Thursday: Applying Reading Skills in the Literature Program

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people, and his own elementary school experience of memorizing names of people, places, and dates.

For children reading at grade levels two to four, there are the Discovery Books (The Garrard Press). So far, they offer books about: Henry Hudson, George Washington Carver, Benjamin Franklin, Daniel Boone, Theodore Roosevelt, Clara Barton, Abraham Lincoln, and Lafayette.

Learning Letter Sounds

The use of projected materials, which offer an attention-holding bright spot in a darkened room and require a less difficult visual accommodation than printed material at near point, has proved its merit as a teaching aid. One of the more recent additions to the film strip library is the series for teaching letter sounds, *Learning Letter Sounds Film Strips*, produced by the Houghton Mifflin Company. The technique used is similar to that employed by Dr. Frank Laubach in his highly successful literacy campaigns in Asia and Africa and parts of the Americas. The form of each letter is associated with an object that begins with the appropriate sound, so that the child visualizes the letter as being made up of the object.

General Bibliography

The 1960 edition of *A Bibliography of Books for Children* is designed "to suggest a limited group of quality books on a variety of subjects for children from four through twelve years of age." The detailed Table of Contents simplifies the

reader's location of books on specific topics. This publication includes one category often omitted in bibliographies of this type, a section on reference books. A complete title index and an author index make life much easier for the user who lacks complete data about a book. Bulletin No. 37, Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, Northwest, Washington 16, D. C. \$1.50.

Special Bibliographies

The Elementary and Junior High School Mathematics Library is an annotated book list for primary grades, intermediate grades, and junior high school. Each entry includes information about publisher, copyright date, price, and recommended grade level within the larger school classification. Clarence Ethel Hardgrove, *The Elementary and Junior High School Mathematics Library*. \$0.35.

For teachers of older pupils, the Council offers a bibliography of enrichment books, classified under fifteen topics. William L. Schaaf, *The High School Mathematics Library*. \$0.40. Both mathematics lists are available from the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Recreational and supplementary reading for students through the eighth grade is listed in a bibliography compiled by Hilary J. Deason, *The Science Book List for Children*. American Association for the Advancement of Science, Washington, D. C. Paper bound, \$1.00.



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PRESIDENT'S REPORT

BY

MARY C. AUSTIN

President, International Reading Association

IN THIS ISSUE of THE READING TEACHER you will find an outline of the events of the coming Conference of IRA on May 5 and 6 in St. Louis.

More than one hundred participants will direct their attention to the theme, Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction. A number of significant changes will be presented by Constance McCullough in her address before the first general session. Speakers at the group meetings will describe how the changing concepts of reading instruction can be implemented in the teaching of the basic skills and in the content areas at all levels. Special Friday morning sessions are also planned for reading clinicians and for administrators and supervisors.

Recognizing that research should assume an increasing role in determining future reading instruction, the program committee designated Friday afternoon for the consideration of research findings related to such areas as teacher education, pupil-team learning, word recognition techniques, individualized reading, secondary programs, achievement here and abroad, and others.

Saturday morning will be devoted to group sessions in various areas. A co-sponsored meeting with the National Council of Teachers of Eng-

lish has been arranged by Ruth Strickland for this time also.

As usual the Saturday luncheon should be a high-point of the annual conference. Past-president Nancy Larrick will introduce authors Carl Carmer and Jean Lee Latham, asking them to tell how they create books for children and youth.

By popular request two Pre-Conference Institutes will be held on Thursday, May 4 (In-Service Teacher Education in Reading and Perceptual Difficulties in Reading), for which advance application is necessary.

IRA is especially pleased to join with the National Society for the Study of Education in the presentation of its Sixty-First Yearbook, *Development In and Through Reading* on Friday evening. Paul Witty, Chairman of the Yearbook Committee, will serve as discussion leader when a superintendent, a principal, and a teacher speak of the Values of the Yearbook.

Judging from the activity of the excellent Local Arrangements Committee headed by Charles Humphrey and Hinda Dillinger and by the gracious acceptances of the many participants, the Sixth Annual Conference should be an outstanding one. We look forward to seeing you in St. Louis!

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Terry Shannon Reading level 3rd grade
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Science and Nature Concepts

- **ATOMS FOR JUNIOR** \$2.50 list, \$1.88 net*
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SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

May 4-6, 1961

Sheraton-Jefferson Hotel and Kiel Auditorium, St. Louis

THEME: *Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction*

Thursday May 4	9:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M.	School and Clinic Visits in the St. Louis Area
	6:00 P.M. to 9:00 P.M.	Conference Registration, Sheraton-Jefferson Hotel
	8:00 P.M. to 10:00 P.M.	Meeting of Assembly of Delegates
Friday May 5	8:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M.	Registration, Sheraton-Jefferson Hotel
	9:00 A.M. to 10:15 A.M.	General Meeting, Opera House, Kiel Auditorium

Chairman—Mary C. Austin, Harvard University, President of the International Reading Association

Welcome—Philip J. Hickey, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis

Speaker—Constance McCullough, San Francisco State University—"Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction"

10:30 A.M. to 11:45 A.M. SECTION MEETINGS

THEME: *Implementing the Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction*

Primary Grades. Chairman, Evelyn S. Thompson, University of Houston
Gertrude Whipple, Detroit Public Schools — "... in the Content Areas"
Lucille Harrison, State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado — "... in the Development of Basic Skills"

Intermediate Grades. Chairman, Leo Fay, Indiana University
Myron Coulter, Pennsylvania State College — "... in the Content Areas"
Richard French, Porter School, Hammond, Indiana — "... in the Development of Basic Skills"

Secondary Levels. Chairman, Dorothy M. Dietrich, Supervisor of Reading, Uniondale, N. Y.
Henry A. Bamman, Sacramento State College — "... in the Content Areas"
Rosemary G. Wilson, Assistant Director, School District of Philadelphia — "... in the Development of Basic Skills"

College and Adult Programs. Chairman, Alton Raygor, University of Minnesota
Phillip Shaw, Brooklyn College — "College Reading-Improvement Programs of the Future"
Bruce Brigham, Temple University —

Administrators, Reading Supervisors, and Consultants. Chairman, William Kottmeyer, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis
A. Sterl Artley, University of Missouri — "A Look at the Road Ahead"
Edna Horrocks, Cleveland Board of Education, Ohio —
Margaret Shea, Massachusetts Department of Education — "Leadership Role of the State Department in Implementing Changing Concepts"

Clinical. Chairman, Harry W. Lewis, Jr., Supervising Director, Reading Clinic, Public Schools of District of Columbia
Roy Kress, Syracuse University — "... in Diagnosis"
Patricia Bricklin, Temple University — "... in Remediation"

2:00 P.M. to 4:00 P.M. SECTION MEETINGS

THEME: *Research and Thinking in Reading*

Teacher Education. Chairman, Mary C. Austin, Harvard University
Coleman Morrison, Harvard University — "Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading" — A
Report of the Harvard-Carnegie Reading Study

Panel: Robert W. Ridgway, University of Kansas
Elizabeth Campbell, Rhode Island College, Providence
Robert E. Lewis, Principal, Daniel Hale Williams Elementary School, Chicago
George Manolakes, New York University
Kate Bell, Public Schools, Houston, Texas

Recorder: Ann Gutmann, Research Assistant, Harvard-Carnegie Reading Study

Pupil-Team Learning. Chairman, Morton Botel, Assistant Superintendent,
Bucks County Schools, Pennsylvania

Donald D. Durrell, Boston University — "Principles, Objectives, and Techniques"
Walter McHugh, Alameda College — "Team Learning in Reading in the Intermediate
Grades"

Helen Murphy, Boston University — "Mutual Aid in Learning in the Primary Grades"

Individualized Reading. Chairman, LaVerne Strong, Connecticut Depart-
ment of Education

Harry Sartain, University of Pittsburgh — "Individualized Reading in Perspective."
Florence Sperry, Los Angeles State College — "The Relationship between Reading
Achievement and Patterns of Reading Instruction in the Primary Grades:

Discussants: Charles M. Brown, University of Southern California; Esther Schatz,
Ohio State University; Philip J. Acinapuro, Farmingdale Public Schools,
New York

Visually Handicapped. Chairman, Donald G. Warren, Inspector of Schools,
Stamford District Board of Education, Niagara Falls, Canada

Alfred A. Rosenbloom, Jr., Illinois College of Optometry, Chicago —

George D. Spache, University of Florida — "Classroom Reading and the Visually
Handicapped Child"

Discussants: Lois B. Bing, Optometrist, Shaker Heights, Ohio; Charles B. Huelsman,
Jr., Miami University, Ohio; Wilda Rosebrook, Ohio State University

Clinical. Chairman, Sister Mary Julitta, O.S.F., Cardinal Stritch College,
Milwaukee

Charles Shedd, Western Kentucky State College — "The Diagnosis and Treatment of
Symbolic Confusion"

Warren Cutts, Kent State University — "Teaching a Brain-Injured Child to Read -
A Case Report"

Discussants: Charles Drake, Wayland Schools, Massachusetts; Nancy Smithers, Ele-
mentary Schools, Hudson, Ohio

The International Scene. Chairman, Dorothy Kendall Bracken, Southern
Methodist University

Geraldine Scholl, University of Michigan — "Reading and Spelling Achievement of a
Group of American and English Children"

Ralph C. Preston, University of Pennsylvania — "A Comparison of the Reading
Achievement of German and American Children"

Discussants: John Regan, Stamford Collegiate Institute, Niagara Falls, Canada; Earl
F. Rankin, Jr., Texas Christian University; Marion L. Edman, Wayne
State University

The Gifted Reader. Chairman, Evelyn K. Davidson, Kent State University
Elizabeth Drews, Michigan State University — "The Gifted Student — Reading Tastes
and Habits"

Jack Kough, Science Research Associates, Inc. — "Administrative Provisions for the
Gifted Reader"

Discussants: Miriam J. McSweeney, Coordinator of Reading, Lynn Public Schools,
Massachusetts; Arno Jewett, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.;
Lawrence M. Fried, Cleveland Heights, Ohio

Secondary Programs. Chairman, David L. Shepherd, Director, The Reading Center, Charlotte Public Schools, North Carolina

Helen K. Smith, University of Chicago —

Harold L. Herber, District Reading Coordinator, Sewanhaka, N. Y. — "A Junior High Reading Experiment"

Katherine E. Torrant, Reading Supervisor, Newton Public Schools, Mass. — "Reading Centers and New Developments in Teaching Reading in the Junior High School"

Discussants: Margaret J. Early, Syracuse University; William Eller, University of Iowa

Word Identification. Chairman, Hazel Horn Carroll, Southern Methodist University

Clarence Elwell, Diocese of Cleveland —

Jesse Grimes, Harvard University —

A. Fred Deverell, University of Saskatchewan — "What Shall We Do to Improve Word Perception? A Study of Cases"

Discussants: Josephine A. Piekarz, New York University; Patricia Eastland, Detroit, Michigan; J. Allen Figurel, University of Pittsburgh

College and Adult Programs. Chairman, Leone M. Burfield, University of Chicago

Esther McConihe, Western Reserve University —

Byron Van Roekel, Michigan State University —

Lt. Col. Winston M. Estes, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama —

Discussants: Ernest A. Jones, Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma; Sister Eileen Marie, College of the Holy Names, Oakland, Calif.; Leonard Braam, Syracuse University

The Use of Television. Chairman, Nina T. Flierl, Bethlehem Central School District, Delmar, New York

Lyman Hunt, Pennsylvania State University — "Televised Reading Series Involving Teachers and Parents"

Richard Carner, Syracuse University — "Teaching Reading Via Closed-Circuit TV — The Cortland Project"

James Schiavone, Lindsay Hopkins Educational Center, Miami, Florida — "Reading on Open-Circuit TV — Adult and College Level"

Velora Swauger, TV Reading Teacher, Hagerstown, Maryland — "For Reading Instruction to Supplement the Developmental Reading Program in a County System"

Discussants: Paul Witty, Northwestern University; Sister Mariam, O.P., Archdiocese of Chicago

Co-Sponsored Meeting of National Conference on Research in English and the International Reading Association. Chairman, Constance McCul-

lough, San Francisco State University

Theodore Clymer, University of Minnesota — "The Utility of Phonic Generalization in the Primary Grades"

Nila B. Smith, New York University —

Discussants: Ralph Staiger, Mississippi Southern College; Russell Stauffer, University of Delaware

4:30 P.M. to 5:30 P.M.—**Reception**

Friday evening, 8:00 P.M. to 10:00 P.M.—**Co-sponsored Meeting of National Society for the Study of Education and the International Reading Association.**

P R E S E N T A T I O N

O F

T H E S I X T I E T H Y E A R B O O K O F N . S . S . E . , P A R T I

Development In and Through Reading

Presiding: Mary C. Austin, Harvard University

Presentation of Yearbook: Paul A. Witty, Director, Psycho-Educational Clinic, and Professor of Education, Northwestern University

Discussion Leader: Paul A. Witty—"Values of the Yearbook"

Discussants: From the standpoint of

- a. the school superintendent — Kenneth Lund, Superintendent of Schools Oak Park and River Forest, Illinois
- b. the principal and supervisor — William Martin, Principal Crow Island School, Winnetka, Illinois
- c. the teacher — Richard Kerr, Classroom Teacher, St. Louis, Missouri.

Comments: By members of the Yearbook Committee

Audience Discussion

Saturday 8:00 A.M. to 11:00 A.M. Registration

May 6 9:00 A.M. to 11:15 A.M. Section Meetings

THEME: Significant Issues in Reading

Reading and Five-Year-Olds. Chairman, Mary Elizabeth Bell, University of Arizona

A. R. MacKinnon, Director of Research, Board of Education, Toronto, Canada — "Research on Instructional Design for First Steps in Reading"

Dolores Durkin, Teachers College, Columbia University — "Some Unanswered Questions"

Discussants: Queenie B. Mills, University of Illinois; Louise Beltramo, State University of Iowa; Irene Haigh, Teachers College, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

Critical Thinking. Chairman, Helen Crossen Casky, University of Cincinnati

Marion Dixon Jenkinson, University of Alberta —

Bernice Rogers, Scott, Foresman Co. —

Russell Stauffer, University of Delaware — "Critical Thinking and the Educated Guess"

Discussants: Janet D. Harris, Burr School, Newton, Mass.; Walter Moore, University of Illinois; Martha Gesling Weber, Bowling Green State University, Ohio

Teaching Machines. Chairman, Arthur I. Gates, Teachers College, Columbia University

Edward Fry, Loyola University of Los Angeles — "What the Reading Teacher Can Learn from Teaching Machines"

Sister Aloysius Clare, Incarnate Word College, San Antonio — "Individualizing the Teaching of Reading Through Tape Recordings"

Arthur V. Olsen, University of Maine — "Real Versus Vicarious Experiences in Training Reading Teachers: The Use of Tape Recorders As an Aid in Training Reading Teachers"

Discussants: Helen Popp, Research Assistant, Psychology Department, Harvard University; Shelley B. Umans, Coordinator of Reading, Junior High School Division, Board of Education, New York City

Children's Literature. Chairman, Mildred H. Huebner, Southern Connecticut State College

Mildred A. Dawson, Sacramento State College — "Lodestones in Children's Books"

Helen Huus, University of Pennsylvania — "Using Children's Books to Extend the Social Studies"

Nancy Larrick, Quakertown, Pennsylvania — "Using Children's Books to Extend the Science Program"

Discussants: (To be announced)

Developing Reading Interests. Chairman, Margaret Robinson, Pauline Avenue School, Toronto, Canada

Mildred Letton Wittick, Paterson State College, New Jersey —

(Other speakers to be announced)

Discussants: Jo M. Stanchfield, Occidental College, Los Angeles; Joseph Underwood, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Lee's Summit, Missouri; Brother Leonard Courtney, St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota

Secondary Programs. Chairman, Dorothy Lampard, University of Alberta, Canada

Guy Bond, University of Minnesota — "Unsolved Problems in Secondary Reading"

Elizabeth A. Simpson, Director, Reading Service, Illinois Institute of Technology — "Responsibility for the Reading Program at the Secondary Level"

Discussants: Mary A. Warren, Supervisor of Reading, Secondary Schools, Massapequa, New York; Eileen Severson, Milwaukee, Wis.; M. Jerry Weiss, Pennsylvania State University

Identifying and Providing for Individual Differences. Chairman, William D. Sheldon, Syracuse University

Ralph Staiger, Mississippi Southern College — "Identifying Individual Differences"

Marjorie Seddon Johnson, Temple University — "Providing for Individual Differences"

Discussants: Eleanor Ladd, Reading Coordinator, Pinellas County Public Schools, Clearwater, Florida; Russell Slater, University of Toledo; William G. Kalenius, Jr., Director, Special Education, Clover Park Schools, Tacoma, Wash.

Constitutional Aspects of Reading. Chairman, Grace S. Walby, Child Guidance Clinic, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada

Albert J. Harris, Queens College — "Perceptual Difficulties in Reading"

Katrina De Hirsch, Columbia-Presbyterian Medical Center, New York — "Reading and Total Language Disability"

Discussants: Muriel Potter Langman, Eastern Michigan College and Hawthorn Center, Northville, Mich.; Donald Cleland, University of Pittsburgh; Father Behrmann, St. Louis University

Role of Speed in Reading. Chairman, James Reed, Wayne State University

Emery P. Bliesmer, University of Virginia — "Review of Research: Eye Movements, Speed Comprehension, Use of Machines"

Emerald Dechant, University of Wichita — "Need for More Research in This Area"

Charles T. Letson, Director, Reading Consultant Services, New Haven, Connecticut — "Testing Speed and Comprehension in Reading"

Arthur S. McDonald, Marquette University — "Developing and Testing Flexible Reading Rates"

Developing Literacy. Chairman, Paul Berg, University of South Carolina

Clare B. Routley, Royal Air Force, Canada — "A Look at World Literacy in 1961"

Pauline Jones Hord, Memphis, Tennessee — "Shall We Use Television in Developing Literacy?"

Discussant: Robert Laubach, Syracuse University

Teaching the Bi-lingual Child. Chairman (To be announced)

Faye L. Bumpass, Texas Technological College, Lubbock — "Helping Spanish-Speaking Children Acquire a Functional Use of English As an Aid to Reading"

Christine Gibson, Harvard University — "Teaching the Reading of English As a Second Language"

Jean-Marie Joly, Laval University, Quebec, Canada —

Discussants: Cathryn G. Keshan, J.H.S. Consultant, Junior High School Division, Board of Education, New York City; Elsa Gelpi, University of Puerto Rico

Contributions of Linguistics to Reading. Chairman, Margaret Shannon, Lowell State Teachers College, Massachusetts

Carl A. Lefevre, Chicago Teachers College — "Speech Patterns and Their Graphic Counterparts"

Priscilla Tyler, Harvard University — "Sound, Pattern and Sense"

Discussants: Mildred Abbott, Chairman, English Department, John Adams High School, Cleveland, Ohio; James Soffietti, Syracuse University; Donald Lloyd, Wayne State University

Organizing School Reading Programs. Chairman, Mildred Kimbrough, Supervisor of Elementary Education, Santa Fe, New Mexico
Clifford L. Bush, Newark State Teachers College, Union, New Jersey — "Evaluating the School Program"

J. Roy Newton, State University of New York, Albany — "Changing the Basic School Organization"

Discussants: Helen M. Robinson, University of Chicago; H. Alan Robinson, Hofstra College; Olive S. Niles, Board of Education, Springfield, Mass.

National Council of Teachers of English. Chairman, Ruth Strickland, Indiana University

(To be announced)

12:00 M. to 2:00 P.M.—**Conference Luncheon**

THEME: *Creating Books for Children*

Mary C. Austin, Chairman

Presentation of Speakers—Nancy Larrick, Past-President of IRA

Carl Carmer—(To be announced)

Jean Lee Latham—"Writing for Tomorrow's Leaders"

2:30 P.M. to 3:30 P.M.—**General Session**

THEME: *Significant Issues in Education*

Chairman, William D. Sheldon, President-elect of IRA

Second Annual Pre-Conference Institutes

Thursday, May 4, 1961 — Sheraton-Jefferson Hotel

THEME: *In-Service Teacher Education in Reading*

Panel Presentation by:

William Kottmeyer
Assistant Superintendent of Schools
St. Louis, Mo.

Joseph O. Loretan
Associate Superintendent
New York City Board of Education

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THEME: *Perceptual Difficulties in Reading*

A consideration of theoretical issues in perception, perceptual difficulties related to brain injury, maturational lag and emotional problems, and implications for diagnosis and treatment.

Major Presentation by:

Albert J. Harris
Director, Educational Clinic
Professor of Education,
Queens College
Former President of IRA

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<input type="checkbox"/> PRINCE AND THE FAUPER	4-5
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<input type="checkbox"/> SILAS MARNER	6-7
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<input type="checkbox"/> TALES WORTH RETELLING	5-6
<input type="checkbox"/> THREE MUSKETEERS	5-6
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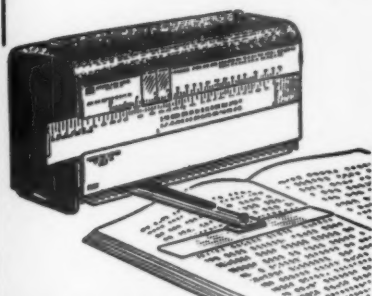
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